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ABSTRACT

The report provides a detailed review of the seven and one-half year Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc., whose operations and research concerned the utility and feasibility of subsidizing worker relocation assistance to the unemployed/underemployed poor for the purposes of improving their economic and social opportunities. Almost 2,500 individuals and their families, at a cost of $2.2 million, were moved from areas of very limited employment opportunities to areas of expanding employment opportunities. The document provides: major policy recommendations; summary of project findings; research design and data base; description of the project populations (applicants and relocatees); sociological analysis of relocation stability (causes, benefits, and costs); an evaluation of the economic impact of the project on program participants; and a measure of project effectiveness (benefit/cost analysis and stayer/leaver model). Two phases of research were accomplished: development of organizational/operational designs for relocating the unemployed/underemployed poor and determination of the success of relocation in terms of individual relocatee gains and societal costs and benefits through investment of public funds. Appended materials include: benefit/cost analysis; model for predicting relocation stability; survey of employers' evaluations; and an annotated list of major project reports. (Author/MW)

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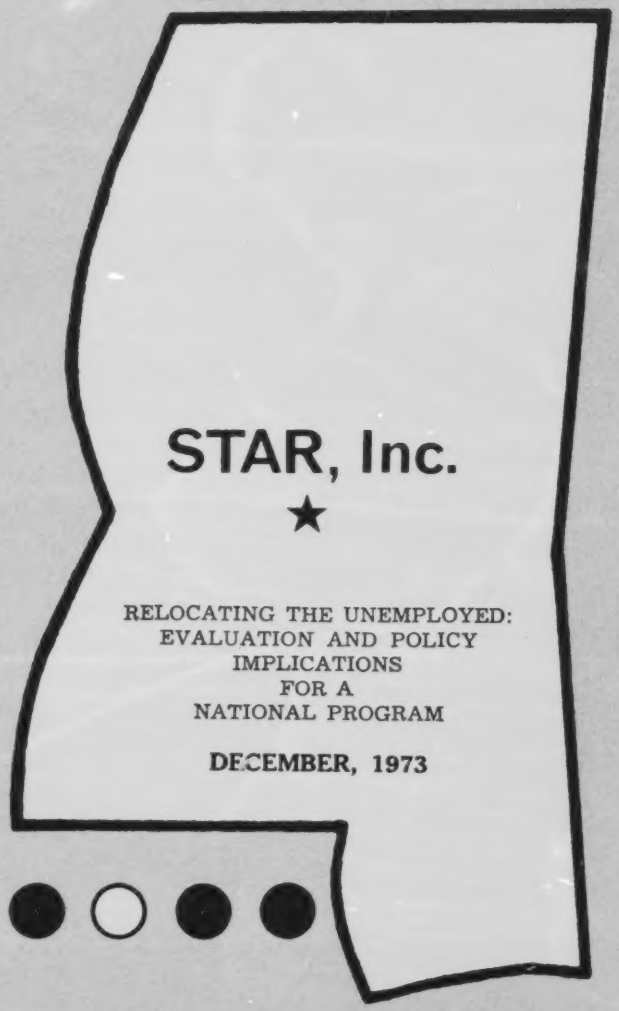

STAR, Inc.

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RELOCATING THE UNEMPLOYED:
EVALUATION AND POLICY
IMPLICATIONS
FOR A
NATIONAL PROGRAM

DECEMBER, 1973

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Preface

This report completes the work of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc., funded by the Department of Labor/Manpower Administration. The Project's work spanned seven and one-half years of operations and research concerning the utility and feasibility of subsidized worker relocation assistance to the unemployed/underemployed poor for the purposes of improving their economic and social opportunities. The Project moved almost 2,500 individuals and their families from areas of very limited employment opportunities to areas of expanding employment opportunities. Approximately $2.2 million were spent for an average of $883 per relocatee family.

Two phases of research were accomplished: (1) Development of organizational/operational designs for relocating the unemployed/underemployed poor and (2) Determination of the success of relocation in terms of individual relocatee gains and societal costs and benefits through investment of public funds. In addition, the Project extensively examined the factors of relocatee success and failure with the objective of enhancing success and minimizing failure.

In addition to this report, two other final reports should be reviewed as parts of the final "package" of research and operational results developed by the Project: (1) Relocating the Unemployed: Dimensions of Success (September 1973) and (2) Relocation Assistance Delivery Techniques (December 1973).

The Project staff wish to express their appreciation to the Department of Labor/Manpower Administration for the opportunity to accomplish their work and to fully explore the many ramifications of subsidized worker relocation. It is their sincere hope that worker relocation be supported on a long-range operational basis throughout the country.

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ABSTRACT

The activities of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc., during the December 1, 1971 - February 28, 1973 contract period are discussed and analyzed from two major perspectives: factors of relocation success and relocation payoffs to individuals and to society. This report differs from prior Project reports in two important aspects: (1) utilization of before- and-after-move data and (2) prediction of relocation success and payoffs due to relocation. More facets of why relocatees remain in or leave their new areas are explored. Data from three sources are used: (1) screening information for 413 relocation applicants and 87 local placement applicants, (2) follow-up interview information for 312 relocation applicants and 77 local placement applicants, and (3) a survey of 54 employers of relocatees. The follow-up interviews were conducted at from three to thirteen months after the applicants were screened for Project services.

The Project achieved a relocation rate of 74 percent of those screened for relocation services. Sixty-seven percent of the relocatees remained in the new areas two months or more. A six-month stay rate was not computed because not all the relocatees had a chance to be in the new areas prior to the follow-up interviews. Twenty-seven percent of the relocatees were at their original relocation jobs at the follow-up while another 12 percent were still in the new area. Ninety-nine percent of the area stayers were employed at the follow-up while only 61 percent of the area leavers were employed.

Some of the more significant results of the analyses of present data include the following: (1) Reliable predictors of relocation success include sex, marital status, age, education, dependents, length of unemployment prior to relocation, new wage rate, and prior manpower training. These factors were found in a prior report and verified in the present report; (2) The first 30 days and particularly the first week in the new area are a crucial time in the decision-making process of the relocatees regarding remaining in the area; (3) The severely disadvantaged need special attention and tailor-made supportive services in order to benefit from relocation; (4) New wages that come close to or exceed aspired wages enhance relocation stability; (5) Considerable occupational upgrading is possible through relocation; (6) Relocatees can at least double their earnings by remaining in the new areas; (7) Relocatee stayers have greater probabilities of being full-time employed and have a greater attachment to the labor force than the relocatee leavers; (8) Society gets back 124 percent of its investment in relocation within a year; (9) Linkage with institutional manpower training programs contributes negatively to relocation stability; (10) Additional information about the impact of change in communities is needed; (11) Employers are generally satisfied with worker relocation as a ready source of labor although the quality of labor is less than satisfactory; and (12) An effective relocation program can be operated for about $800 per relocatee, considerably less than most manpower training programs.

The report incorporates in summary form general recommendations based upon present and past data and research conclusions from all past Project reports. The research conclusions are grouped as follows: (1) characteristics of target populations, (2) organizational structure/operations, (3) applicant services, (4) program costs, and (5) justification for relocation manpower services. The need for relocation services is developed along with identifying who will accept relocation services.

RELOCATING THE UNEMPLOYED:
EVALUATION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS FOR A NATIONAL PROGRAM

Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc.

Hattiesburg, Mississippi

December, 1973

This report was prepared for the Manpower Administration, U. S. Department of Labor, under research and development contract No. 82-26-70-12. Since contractors conducting research and development projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express their own judgment freely, this report does not necessarily represent the official opinion or policy of the Department of Labor. The contractor is solely responsible for the contents of this report.

Chapter 1: Introduction to Report

The general population and the general labor force of the United States are geographically mobile; one in five persons change residences each year.[1] About two-fifths of all residential changes involve moves within the same county. Those who change counties when they change residences are called migrants. About one-half of all county-to-county migrations involve moves to another state.[2]

Moves within the county are most often related to (1) being unable to make rent payments; (2) needing either larger or smaller housing as stages in the family growth cycle change--new baby, working-age children move out, retirement, etc.; (3) decay in condition of old residence; (4) desire to have housing that reflects one's upward social mobility; and/or (5) decay in conditions of residential neighborhoods. There may even be some small amount of moving to be nearer the place of employment.

Moves to another county are necessitated or motivated by somewhat different considerations: (1) economic difficulties that may require change of residence to be near or live with someone who can provide part or all of one's living expenses; (2) severe illness in one's family; (3) transfer by one's employer; (4) property tax considerations--lower taxes in another, nearby county; (5) unemployment and low job possibilities in county of residence--job seeking; (6) enrollment in college or university; or (7) dissatisfaction with general living conditions of county of residence.

While the major reasons for each type of mobility have been indicated, the reasons for each type naturally are not mutually exclusive. However, migrants usually incur or risk greater economic and psychic costs because of (1) separation from family of birth; (2) separation from area known quite intimately; (3) monies spent to finance the move of persons and property; (4) some possible unemployment after the move; (5) possible decrease in income; (6) indebtedness to finance the move; (7) depreciation of personal auto; and (8) possible losses of voter eligibility. The rewards/benefits of the move are usually expected to at least compensate for the costs/risks of the move. One of the major benefits anticipated from migration is upward social mobility in the form of a more desirable life style. That this reward is not always forthcoming is one of the negative aspects of massive migration.

Why is migration occurring on such a larger scale? Some of the prime reasons for this migration in the past several decades include (1) displacement of agricultural workers and families by capital intensive technology; (2) increasing efficiency of the agricultural sector (4 percent of the population feeds the other 96 percent); (3) the rapid growth of

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[1]Bureau of Census, Mobility of the Population of the United States, March 1970 to March 1971, Washington: Department of Commerce, 1972.

[2]Bureau of the Census, General Social and Economic Characteristics: 1970 Summary, Washington: Department of Commerce, 1972, p. 365.

cities and concurrent growth in employment and social opportunities in urban areas, (4) increased literacy; (5) increased affluence; (6) improvements in mass transportation; (7) active industry and labor force recruiting by civic organizations and government officials; and (8) movement of businesses to areas of cheap labor, plentiful land, and low taxes.[3]

The bulk of the migration in this century has been from rural places to urban places. Since 1910, the number of urban places has increased by almost 150 percent, and the urban population has increased by almost 100 percent! Over 70 percent of the United States population is urban with over one-fourth living in cities of 100,000+ inhabitants. At the beginning of the century only two-fifths of the population was urban![4]

Although this massive, rapid, rural-to-urban migration has been beneficial to many people, the proportion of poor persons in the country is not dropping as rapidly as the migration rate is increasing. In the past ten or so years, the proportion of poor persons concentrated in urban areas has been shifting beyond 50 percent.[5] Rural poverty is being overshadowed by urban poverty. Such is more so the case for blacks than for whites--63 percent of poor black families versus 51 percent of poor white families live in metropolitan areas. Masses of poor, unemployed or underemployed people and their families are formed into enclaves or ghettoes in the central cities of the urban areas.

The other main group of persons who migrate for job-related reasons are those who have already obtained work prior to the move and must migrate in order to accept the employment or in order not to have to commute long distances. These persons seldom if ever set up their residence in the center city but rather settle in the expanding area around the center city or in the suburbs. Most of these migrants are either transferred by their present employer, or were offered jobs by college recruiters, or have work experience that is in demand at the destination of their migration. These people, by and large, are already in at least the middle class or can enter it quite rapidly. These people will not likely experience long periods of unemployment. These migrants might be called the "affluent migrants".

In addition to migration, there is another significant form of geographic mobility. That a large portion of the national labor force commutes is well known; most commuting occurs within fairly well-defined "commuting areas" which involve round-trips to and from work and consume from one to two hours. The more crowded the cities become, the more

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[3]Russell R. Dynes et al; Social Problems: New York: Oxford University Press, 1964, pp. 20-25.

[4]Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1970, Washington: Department of Commerce, 1969, p. 16.

[5]Bureau of Census, 1970 Census, op. cit., pp. 423 and 446.

commuting will become commonplace. In the states of Arkansas and Mississippi one-fifth of the gainfully employed daily commute to work in a county different from that of their residence. Within each of these two states the variation of intercounty commuting is enormous--from 8 to 63 percent with the average being 20-22 percent.[6] The national average rate of commuting is about 18 percent.[7]

Most of the commuting is toward larger urban areas of greater employment opportunities and away from rural areas of low employment opportunities. The commuting generally occurs within a 30-45 mile radius of the urban center(s). Commuting in Arkansas and Mississippi appears to occur for several more reasons: (1) proximity of urban area with the job opportunities; (2) good highways between origin and destination; (3) stagnant, shrinking, or near non-existent job opportunities in county of residence; (4) a reluctance to change county of residence; (5) availability of means of transportation other than public conveyances; and (6) economic costs of commuting compensated by wages and salaries in the job area. Those who are employed in their county of residence might commute if the benefits of commuting outweighed the costs. Many of the unemployed might commute if job opportunities were known and if inexpensive transportation were available.

Geographic mobility to seek employment is often unproductive in that the migrant is sometimes unable to find employment after migrating; the concomitant problems of unemployment are merely shifted geographically.[8] Some of the ways to alleviate unemployment and unproductive mobility as society problems include (1) build new industries in areas of high unemployment; (2) provide government subsidies to employers to hire and/or train the unemployed; (3) provide job information to the unemployed; (4) promote commuting; and (5) promote migration.

These alternatives for dealing with unemployment are intervention strategies that can be used by the public and/or private sectors of the nation's economy. In attempting to reduce unemployment the private sector usually relies upon (1) the price mechanism and/or (2) labor supply and demand to generate whatever level of employment is needed for production; these traditional approaches are less than satisfactory. That there be full employment is not necessary for growth in economic production. What is needed by the individual and his family may not be needed by the producers of economic goods and services.

What is of concern here is how to significantly reduce unemployment through social intervention, through planned, directed social change in

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[6]Bureau of Census, General Social and Economic Characteristics, Mississippi: 1970 Census of Population, PC(1)-C26, Washington, D. C.; and Bureau of the Census, General Social and Economic Characteristics, Arkansas: 1970 Census of Population, PC(1)-C5, Washington, D. C.

[7]Bureau of Census, 1970 United States Census, op. cit., p. 354.

[8]Alan Sorkin, "Education, Migration, and Negro Unemployment", Social Forces, 47 (1969), pp. 265-274.

the allocation of workers and of work, and, as a consequence, affect the allocation of wealth. Just as raising wages and salaries provides more money for consumption, so does reducing unemployment. The traditional labor market and the economic mechanisms have not been sufficiently effective in reducing unemployment, and, therefore, an alternative mechanism or strategy should be attempted by the public sector.

From a manpower perspective that conceivably could be handled by the Department of Labor, the first alternative intervention strategy is impossible because of functional as well as jurisdictional barriers. Alternative #2 is being and has been tried via OJT, apprenticeship programs, and so on. Alternative #3 is presently being dealt with by the Employment Service, the mass media, and others. Alternative #4 has not been attempted in a directed, planned way. Alternative #5 has been attempted by the present and past labor mobility (worker relocation) projects financed by the United States Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. Sixty-one such projects have been in existence at one time or another since 1966. Only three such projects were in operation after 1969.

The Mississippi Labor Mobility Project (MLMP) is one of the three relocation projects with funding continued by the Manpower Administration after 1969 and has been relocating the unemployed poor since the Fall of 1966. This report, in conjunction with two others, represents the final research product of the Project. These reports are framed to serve as sources of policy statements for a future national worker relocation program. Based upon data collected over a seven-year period, the reports present policy recommendations for such a national program.

The present report focuses heavily upon the costs and benefits of relocation to the individual relocatee and his family and to the nation's economy. The context for the analyses is (1) the population of applicants processed by the Project from December 1, 1971 through February 28, 1973, and (2) the operational system of the project in effect during that period. The major research questions posed in the report include (1) the nature of the client population at the time of screening for relocation (Chapter 5), (2) the factors that affected decisions to relocate and to remain in the new areas once relocated (Chapters 6 and 7), and (3) measurement of program effectiveness including cost and benefits (Chapter 8).

Recommendations that follow from these analyses are summarized at the beginning of the report (Chapter 2) with attention to (1) who should get what kinds of services, (2) what indicators of program performance should be used, (3) what outputs or outcomes should be expected from a similar relocation program, (4) what changes in program structure and operational processes should be made to increase efficiency and effectiveness, and (5) what should be the role of relocation in the context of manpower programs. The major conclusions of the Project's research are presented in Chapter 3. Chapters 4 through 8 represent the bulk of the research conducted for this report with Chapter 4 outlining the research design, Chapter 5 the Project

populations, and Chapters 6 - 8 analyzing Project performance from sociological and economic perspectives. Appendices A and B are technical discussions of the economic analyses in Chapters 7 and 8. Reactions and recommendations of employers of relocatees are assessed in Appendix C. Appendix D is an annotated bibliography of major Project reports written since 1966.

Chapter 2: Major Policy Recommendations

Two phases of research were conducted during seven and one-half years of work to (1) test the operational feasibility of offering subsidized relocation assistance for relocating the unemployed poor in Mississippi and Arkansas and (2) determine the personal gains and losses of the relocatee "stayers" and "leavers". Together, these two research phases were to assess the value of subsidized relocation assistance through allocation of public funds to impact upon the unemployed poor.

Chapter Three summarizes the significant findings of the two phases of research. Those findings, along with supportive Project research documents, serve as the bases for the following key recommendations.[9] Accordingly, it is strongly recommended:

1. That the Department of Labor actively pursue the need for simple and concise legislative authority for the provision of worker relocation manpower services.

2. That such legislation contain a firm and clear description of those for whom relocation manpower services are intended to serve.

3. That such legislation include priority for the provision of relocation manpower services for the unemployed disadvantaged poor (populations most in need).

4. That such legislation specify that the role of relocation manpower services is both supportive of other manpower services and one which can independently move unemployed people to employment.

5. That a national office of relocation manpower services be established with appropriate regional components to maintain administrative and program control and to provide the necessary follow-up to determine the effectiveness of relocation services.

6. That plans for the implementation of relocation manpower services consider maximized numbers of job areas and jobs for which the relocatees could qualify since chances of matching the home area and relocation area conditions are improved, program flexibility is improved, and the use of program funds is maximized.

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[9]See list of documents in Chapter 3.

7. That the National and Regional offices of relocation manpower services ensure that the "delivery agent" system design include the following program elements: (a) outreach recruitment; (b) intake and screening; (c) job development; (d) employability development; (e) relocation/placement; (f) support services; and (g) system-monitoring (operational costs and client follow-up).

8. That the National and Regional offices of relocation manpower services ensure that relocation program (Project's) operational elements are structured and operated to meet the total objective and not competitive to a point of counter-productiveness.

9. That the Delivery Agent(s) providing relocation manpower services be an agent possessing sufficient flexibility to provide services to the population as they are needed rather than as they are available.

10. That Delivery Agent plans for relocation manpower services include financial and staff assistances needed to relocate the unemployed disadvantaged person and his family.

11. That, in the absence of legislative authority for a national worker relocation manpower services program, Governors of States investigate the feasibility and desirability of using funds authorized under the "Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973" for the provision of worker relocation manpower services.

12. That the flow of relocation manpower services used to impact on the unemployed poor be as follows:

    a. Relocate those "job-ready" applicants, living outside normal commuting distances, to jobs in the local environment (if jobs exist).

    b. Relocate those "job-ready" applicants from areas where jobs do not exist to areas where their employment capabilities can be used.

    c. Relocate those "nonjob-ready" applicants living outside normal commuting distances to local environment "job-linked" on-the-job training where training is (1) provided by the employer and (2) provided by government subsidy.

    d. Relocate those "nonjob-ready" applicants from areas where jobs do not exist to "job linked" on-the-job training where training is (1) provided by the employer and (2) provided by government subsidy.

e. Relocate those "job-ready" applicants for a and b above in lieu of providing training.

f. Relocate those "overages" of institutionally trained workers who cannot be employed in the area of training.

g. Relocate those "overages" of technically skilled trained workers who cannot be employed in the area of training.

13. That job development for the difficult-to-place-and-hold relocatees be aggressive and include the employers in affirmative action programs.

14. That relocatee placements not be made where job orders are the easiest to get but rather where the jobs pay the best and offer long-range opportunities.

15. That "screening out" criteria or priorities be pursued with extreme caution because those who might be poor risks as stayers might benefit significantly in terms of long-range income gains.

16. That ways be explored to keep the young, single relocatees in the relocation area through the first month, after which their chances of being successful relocatees increase greatly.

17. That labor market information be developed comprehensively prior to the initiation of any relocation program. After the program begins operation, the labor markets should be monitored on a regular basis to determine shifts in labor supply and demand so that recruitment and job development activities can be redirected to allow for those shifts.

18. That support services which cannot be provided by the Delivery Agent be contracted locally.

19. That a relocation program utilize all existing employability development services which could include, but not be limited to, Adult Basic Education, OJT, CEP, CETA, and Employment Security Commission.

20. That the measurement of the performance of relocation programs stress both relocation stability ("staying") and an acceptable benefit/cost ratio. An emphasis on one to the exclusion of the other would be unwise.

21. That the initial screening procedures serve to identify problem clients who might benefit from a manpower "track" or sequence that would not necessarily include relocation.

22. That the Secretary of Labor explore ways to encourage the flow of relocations across state boundaries when necessary to fully exploit labor supply and demand in functional economic areas.

23. That ways be found to increase the relocation rates of those clients who are reluctant to relocate but who could benefit from relocation.

Chapter 3: Summary of Project Findings

Since this is the Project's final report, included herein are all those "findings" which are considered pertinent to seven and one-half years of research work. These findings are based on (1) factors of Project "experience" which were related to the translation of an idea into a workable organization for relocating the unemployed poor, and (2) analysis of data collected for numerous reports (Appendix D).

Discussions and analyses related to most of these findings are presented in this or one of the other two final reports (FR-1 and FR-2 below). However, more detailed discussions of some findings are found in other Project reports. Accordingly, included after each finding are appropriate report codes as follows:

FR-1: Relocating the Unemployed: Dimensions of Success, September, 1973 (Covering work period March 1, 1970 - November 30, 1971).

FR-2: Relocation Assistance Delivery Techniques, December, 1973.

FR-3: Relocating the Unemployed: Evaluation and Policy Implications for a National Program, December, 1973.

AR-1: Project's 1967 Annual Report for work period June 26, 1966 - June 25, 1967.

AR-2: Project's 1968 Annual Report for work period June 26, 1967 - November 30, 1968.

AR-3: Project's 1970 Annual Report for work period December 1, 1968 - February 28, 1970.

AR-4: Revised draft of Recommended Worker Relocation Handbook, June, 1971.

AR-5: Suggested System for Identification of Potential Areas of Worker Relocation Service Demand and Supply, June, 1971.

AR-6: Linkage of Relocation Services with Opportunities for Families Program, October, 1971.

PE: Results of Project Experience.

Project's Target Populations

1. About 90 percent of those for whom the Project's research is based on were the involuntarily unemployed, disadvantaged poor applicants.
(FR-2, FR-3, PE)

2. Few, if any, would have been able to successfully relocate without the financial assistance provided by the Project.
(PE)

3. Few, if any, would have been able to successfully relocate to a job and to a new area without staff assistance provided by the Project.
(PE)

4. Results regarding the impact of race, sex, marital status, education, and number of dependents of applicants on likelihoods to relocate were inconclusive.
(FR-1, FR-3)

5. Those under 30 years old were more likely to relocate than those over 30 years old.
(FR-1, FR-3)

6. The likelihood of relocation decreased with the length of unemployment prior to screening for relocation.
(FR-1)

7. Over the years, the number of individuals willing to relocate was much more than the Project could conceivably serve with its limited resources. There was always a backlog of eligible and willing applicants.
(PE)

8. Most were poorly educated in terms of formal and technical training.
(AR-2, FR-1, FR-2, FR-3, PE)

9. Most of those who were provided Project relocation services were young (less than 25 years of age) and black; they were almost evenly split regarding marital status.
(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3, PE)

10. Except for those who had some skills training, entry level jobs ($1.60 to $2.00 per hour) were the only jobs available for the relocatees.
(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3, PE)

11. Many had inadequate clothing when reporting to the new job.
(PE)

12. A large portion were immobile, i.e., without means of personal transportation.
(FR-1, FR-3, PE)

13. Most were not accustomed to the constraints of the new job, i.e., the need to be at work on time and the need to inform employers if they were ill or had to return to previous home area because of family emergency, etc.

(AR-2, FR-3, PE)

14. Many could have benefited from "factory oriented" and motivational training.

(FR-3, PE)

15. The young (21 years of age and younger), the single, and mostly blacks were the hardest to please in terms of jobs and new area living conditions (highest among failures).

(FR-1, FR-3, PE)

16. Documentation (resumés, work application forms, etc.) of the qualifications and previous work experience of the unemployed poor was a poor vehicle for a potential job-match process.

(PE)

17. Without close staff supervision, many of the relocatees were apt to spend grant financial assistance for luxury items rather than for necessities such as rent, utilities, clothing, tools, etc. which were required if the relocation were to succeed.

(PE)

18. Most preferred to relocate to a suitable job and new area as close as possible to their home area.

(PE)

19. Marrieds with large families had more problems associated with moving than did small families and singles.

(AR-2, PE)

20. Poor blacks had more problems than did poor whites, one problem being suitable housing in the new area.

(AR-1, PE)

21. Establishing and maintaining good communications with the unemployed poor continued to be difficult.

(AR-2, PE)

22. The indebted, regardless of the amount of the indebtedness, were more likely to relocate than the unindebted; also, they were likely to remain in the area once relocated.

(FR-1, FR-3)

23. For the single relocatees, the existence of savings had no relationship to stability, while for the married relocatees, those with savings were more likely to stay than those without savings.

(FR-1, FR-3)

24. Those with highest prior mobility were more likely to be stayers. But this conclusion must be qualified in that it holds true primarily for the married relocatees who had higher average prior mobility than the singles.

(FR-1)

25. Over four-fifths of the relocatees were satisfied with their relocation jobs.

(FR-1)

26. There was no relationship between being absent from work and staying in the area.

(FR-1)

27. If the relocatee was absent for any reason other than illness, he was likely to leave the job and the area.

(FR-1, FR-3)

28. Those who were able to utilize prior job training were more likely to be stayers than those who were not able to use that training.

(FR-1)

29. Those who accepted the relocation job because it was the only one available were more likely to be leavers than stayers.

(FR-1)

30. Those with the highest likelihood of staying in the area and on the job were those who took the relocation job in order to use or apply their prior work-related training and/or work experience.

(FR-1)

31. Those who perceived the benefits or anticipated benefits of remaining in the new area as outweighing the costs were more likely to remain in the area; however, if the costs (or losses) were perceived as outweighing the benefits, they were more likely to leave the area, all other things being equal.

(FR-1, FR-3)

32. The families of the stayers were much more satisfied with the area in which they were living than were the families of the leavers.

(FR-1)

33. Those who stayed in the new area were likely to see their income as being relatively sufficient for normal, everyday needs but not for unexpected, unplanned contingencies.

(FR-1)

34. Stayers were more likely than leavers to have been recruited into higher paying jobs; both groups were likely to be earning substantially more on their new jobs than on their prior jobs.

(FR-1, FR-3)

35. The likelihood of staying increased by the level of relocation job wages.
(FR-1, FR-3)

36. Those who were either buying or renting before relocation were more likely to be stayers than those who were living rent-free.
(FR-1, FR-3)

37. Those with their own car or truck were the most likely to stay on their jobs.
(FR-1, FR-3)

38. Those who found their standard of living improved were the most likely to stay, while those who found no change or a worse standard of living were the most likely to leave.
(FR-1, FR-3)

39. The standard of living of the stayers was improved as indicated by the proportion of them who were able to purchase household appliances and conveniences after moving to the new area.
(FR-1, FR-3)

40. Improved employment opportunities were found to be significantly associated with relocating and remaining in the new area.
(FR-1, FR-3)

41. Females were more likely to stay than males.
(FR-1, FR-3)

42. Marrieds were more likely to stay than nonmarrieds.
(FR-1, FR-3)

43. The likelihood of staying increased with the level of education, age, and family size of the relocatee(s).
(AR-2, FR-1, FR-3)

44. Those who relocated for reasons other than their state of unemployment were the most likely to stay.
(FR-1)

45. Those who had relatives and/or were able to form new friendships in the new area were more likely to remain than those who had neither relatives nor friends there.
(FR-1, PE)

46. Those without relatives or close friends in the supply area were more likely to be stayers than those with relatives and friends in the supply area.
(FR-1, FR-3)

47. The first month on the job in the new area was the most critical period of adjustment for the relocatee with over half of those who left in the first month doing so in the first week.
(AR-2, FR-1, FR-3, PE)

48. Manpower training did not contribute significantly to relocation success whether in terms of staying in the new area or in projected income.
(FR-1, FR-3)

49. The likelihood of staying increased with the level of prerelocation annual family income.
(FR-3)

50. There was no clear relationship between length of prior unemployment and relocation stability.
(FR-1, FR-3)

51. There was no clear relationship between prior job/occupational mobility and relocation stability.
(FR-3)

52. Relocatees from rural areas were more likely to be stayers than relocatees from towns or cities.
(FR-3)

53. Relocatees who moved to different sized towns, either larger or smaller, were more likely to be stayers than those who moved to towns the size of their home town.
(FR-3)

54. Relocatees from broken homes were more likely to be leavers than stayers.
(FR-3)

55. Those relocatees who got past their first visit home, usually at the end of the first week in the new area, significantly increased their chances of being stayers.
(FR-1, FR-3)

56. The stayers were better able than the leavers to resist the attraction of "back home ties" with family and friends.
(FR-1, FR-3)

57. Those who had lost their most recent prerelocation job due to layoffs were more likely than the average to return home, quite possibly because of recall to work there.
(FR-1, FR-3)

58. Relocatees who were poor, black, school dropouts, and under 22 years of age (the "severely disadvantaged poor") were extremely unlikely

to be stayers. Their stay rate was from one-half to one-fifth that of other groups.

(FR-3)

59. From a disadvantagedness and poverty perspective, the number of disadvantaged characteristics was a better predictor of relocation stability than was poverty status.

(FR-3)

60. Relocatees with prior work experience in the agricultural and service sectors were more likely to be stayers than were relocatees from any other sector of prior employment.

(FR-3)

61. Relocation resulted in substantial occupational upgrading for relocatees with prior labor force experience.

(FR-3)

62. Those relocatees who remained in the new areas at least six months had significantly better long-range income earning opportunities than those who returned home.

(FR-3)

63. Even those who returned home showed income gains attributable to having been relocated.

(FR-3)

64. There was less than aggressive job development for the severely disadvantaged, poor relocatees who were placed in primarily low paying, menial, dead-end jobs.

(FR-3)

65. About 30 percent of those who remained in the new area left their relocation jobs prior to six months but had little difficulty in finding other jobs, more often at higher wages.

(FR-3)

66. Those who returned home had a lesser chance of finding work than those who remained in the new area, and more often than not the jobs back home paid less.

(FR-1, FR-3)

67. The stayers had higher average wage aspirations than the leavers; the likelihood of staying increased with the level of wage aspirations.

(FR-3)

68. The stayers came closer to their aspired wages than did the leavers.

(FR-3)

69. Those whose new wages were lower than their aspired wages were highly likely to be leavers.

(FR-3)

70. Paying over $2.00 per hour resulted in significantly higher stay rates.

(FR-3)

71. Paying at least 30 percent over the old prerelocation wage resulted in significantly higher stay rates.

(FR-3)

72. Paying at least $ .20 per hour over the old prerelocation wage resulted in significantly higher stay rates.

(FR-3)

73. New wages 30 percent greater than aspired wages resulted in significantly higher stay rates.

(FR-3)

74. Both stayers and leavers with prior wage earnings received relocation wages that were significantly higher than their prior wages; the stayers had higher increases than did the leavers.

(FR-1, FR-3)

Project's Organizational Structure/Operations

1. The employers of relocatees suggested that the relocatees have on-the-job training and orientation as part of the relocation program package.

(FR-3)

2. By increasing the number of demand areas a wider selection of jobs for which the relocatees could qualify became available. Also, the chances of matching the home area and the relocation area conditions were improved.

(PE)

3. In only one instance was the Project able to fully utilize labor markets and functional economic areas which spanned political and administrative boundaries of states and that was moving Mississippi workers to Memphis. Mobile, Baton Rouge, and New Orleans were potential though inaccessible labor markets adjacent to Mississippi and within relocation range.

(PE)

4. Job development was not as aggressive as it should have been in (a) fostering nondiscriminatory hiring practices; (b) helping employers redefine job descriptions so that relocatees could more easily qualify; (c) generating a variety of jobs and employers;

(d) searching for jobs that paid over the minimum wage and offered wage increase opportunities; and (e) matching jobs with relocatee capabilities rather than the other way around.
(AR-2, AR-3, FR-2, PE)

5. The relocation system was regularly and frequently monitored to assess goal achievement. Changes in the system resulted as a consequence of this routine assessment.
(AR-2, PE)

6. Labor market information was generated at the local and state levels through use of newspapers, state employment services, commerce department bulletins, and so on.
(PE)

7. Administrative control forms were developed to track clients and fiscal disbursements.
(AR-2, AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

8. Control forms and WATS communications were necessary but not sufficient control techniques. Field visits by central office personnel were not as frequent as were necessary.
(AR-2, AR-3, FR-2, PE)

9. More outreach recruiting staff was needed in rural areas where the target population was widely dispersed and often isolated.
(FR-2, PE)

10. Staff travel had to be a compromise between (a) maximum target population coverage and (b) minimum travel costs so as to be able "to reach more people for less money".
(FR-2, PE)

11. A dual function staff deployment was used in Northeast Mississippi where (a) the distances to be moved were short (35 to 75 miles) and (b) the labor supply and demand were comparable in volume.
(FR-2, PE)

12. A semi-dual function staff deployment was used in Arkansas and Northwest Mississippi where (a) the distances to be moved were moderately long (75 to 150 miles) and (b) the supply of labor was widely dispersed.
(FR-2, PE)

13. A separate-but-linked function staff deployment was used in relocating to the Mississippi Gulf Coast where (a) the distances to be moved were long (over 150 miles) and (b) the supply of labor was widely dispersed.
(FR-2, PE)

14. Successful relocation rather than relocation placements was considered to be one of the minimum program performance criteria.
(FR-2, PE)

15. Program flexibility and responsiveness were developed in order to meet individual and employer needs on a timely basis.
(PE)

16. The relocation services delivery system of the Project included the following key elements: (a) outreach recruitment; (b) intake and screening; (c) job development; (d) employability development; (e) relocation/placement; (f) support services; and (g) system-monitoring (operational costs and client follow-up).
(AR-4, FR-2, PE)

17. The Project was not able to deliver many of the services needed by many of its clients.
(AR-2, FR-2, PE)

18. The most heavily developed counties for relocatee jobs had the highest proportions of stayers among the relocatees placed.
(FR-3)

19. The counties most heavily recruited for relocatees had the highest proportion of leavers.
(FR-3)

Applicant Services

1. Outreach recruitment was actively pursued to reach the majority of the unemployed poor who do not use the standard channels of job search.
(AR-1, AR-2, AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

2. Intensive intake screening was required to assess the full range of the needs of the client and to search for matching solutions to those needs.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

3. The screening process was occasionally remiss in imparting detailed information about the objectives and nature of relocation and the many services available.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

4. The client had to be as fully informed of the new area as of the new job if the relocation were to be successful.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

5. Uncovering unfilled jobs that were suitable to client needs and qualifications was a necessary and unending staff activity.
(AR-1, AR-2, AR-3, AR-4, AR-5, FR-2, PE)

6. A job match consisted of relating potential jobs to the individual's profile of needs and problems as these were developed during the screening process.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

7. A potential relocatee/employer "face-to-face" job interview proved to be an essential element for job placement of the disadvantaged poor.
(AR-2, FR-2, PE)

8. Relocatee demand area problems were more difficult to solve than supply area problems; e.g., suitable housing, needs for transportation, day care help, adjustments to new community, etc.
(PE)

9. Provision of financial assistance was an indispensable part of successful worker relocation of the unemployed, disadvantaged poor.
(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3, PE)

10. Program (project) services (staff services and issuance of financial assistance) had to be on a flexible, timely, and as-needed basis if the clients were to be effectively served.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

11. The Project did not have the flexibility, i.e., authority and resources, to sequence program services to adapt them to the unique needs of each client.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

12. Field staff were recruited for communications skills that would be effective with the target population(s) and with prospective employers.
(AR-4, FR-2, PE)

13. Field staff had to be available to help solve relocatee problems on an around-the-clock basis.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

14. Disadvantaged relocatees needed extensive support services/counseling both before and after relocation.
(AR-3, AR-4, FR-2, PE)

15. All eligible persons would not have necessarily benefited by relocation.
(FR-1, FR-3)

16. Disadvantaged relocatees often had to be assisted by the staff in completing and executing program (project) documents required for issuance of financial assistance and controls.
(PE)

Project Costs
(Operational Findings)

1. Factors which influenced the allocation of project costs included but were not limited to the following:

   a - Characteristics of target population, those who were certified eligible relocatee applicants and those who were single, married, or single member heads of household.

b - Basis used for measuring costs versus those who received services, i.e., a relocatee was not counted unless he received a part of or all of authorized relocation assistance allowance.
c - Basis for measuring relocatee success, i.e., those who were still employed at two and six months after being hired in the new area.
d - Geographic distances related to moving those who received services.
e - Costs for hiring and maintaining competent staff.
f - The workload (numbers of relocatees) each field staff member could handle on an annual basis.
g - Funding stability.
h - Operational utilization (deployment) of field staff.
i - Administrative overhead costs.
j - Counting field staff effort for placing unemployed workers in local jobs.
k - Costs associated with research requirements.

(AR-3, FR-2, PE)

2. Average costs during 1969 and 1970-1971, which were fairly typical operational years, included

a - Average costs were $749.15 per relocation (charging total project costs on a per relocatee basis).
b - Average staff salaries per month were $612.64.
c - Average travel costs per field employee per month were $121.96.
d - Average administrative costs per month were $1,766.16.
e - Average unemployed worker interview, travel, and first week costs of living were $64.11.
f - Average financial assistance (RAA) issued married and/or heads of household relocatees was $436.13.
g - Average financial assistance (RAA) issued single relocatees was $82.03.
h - Total average financial assistance (RAA, worker interview travel, medical and first week costs of living) was $321.88. per relocatee. (43 percent of total average costs per relocatee).

(FR-2)

3. Adding local placements to the number of relocatees above, total costs were $522.47 per placement during that time period.

(FR-2)

4. Financial assistance was issued relocatees for the purposes of

a - Employer/Employee interview travel and overnight expense. (Spouse not included).
b - Medical expense ($50 maximum) incident to becoming employed.
c - First week costs of living for a "hired" relocatee.

d - A separate maintenance allowance for married and heads of household relocatees (Maintenance of two residences prior to family move).
e - Travel expense for relocatee family (at time of move).
f - Payment for movement of household effects.
g - New area "settling-in" expense allowance.

(FR-2)

5. Cost averages were increased by relocating more married relocatees or decreased by relocating more single relocatees.

(FR-2, PE)

6. Financial assistance issued was often insufficient, particularly for those relocatees with large families. Reductions in financial assistance for the single relocatees did not significantly affect their likelihood of being successful in the new area.

(PE)

7. Deployment of field staff on a dual function (supply area/demand area functions) basis produced more work for lower costs.

(FR-2, PE)

8. Deployment of field staff on a separated-but-linked supply area/demand area basis produced more costs for less work.

(FR-2, PE)

9. The field staff required for Project control documentation was excessive and reduced the time available for relocations.

(FR-2, PE)

10. Untimely flow of project funds (contract instability) reduced potential relocations by 20 percent.

(PE "estimate")

11. The Project could have produced more relocations had it not been research oriented.

(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3, PE)

12. Moving relocatees shorter average distances each successive contract period helped to reduce program costs considerably.

(FR-2, PE)

13. Hiring and keeping competent staff for average wages issued was a difficult problem. Staff costs were low in relation to responsibility and work accomplished.

(PE)

14. A costs/benefits study of project operations concluded that relocating unemployed poor for jobs was an exceptionally good investment of public funds.

(FR-3)

15. Even those who are poor risks as stayers benefit income-wise from relocation.

(FR-3)

16. Improving both the cost/benefit ratio and the stay rates are not necessarily compatible.

(FR-3)

Summary of Findings: Justification for Relocation Manpower Services

1. Large numbers of the Project's target population, both male and female, black and white, young and old, married and single indicated interest in relocating for jobs and new home areas. Over 12,000 individuals were contacted and 40 percent were willing to relocate.

(AR-1, AR-2, AR-3, PE)

2. Those individuals were the involuntarily unemployed poor, living in areas where few jobs were available; jobs that were available locally more often than not paid less than the federal minimum wage.

(PE, FR-1, FR-2, FR-3)

3. Those individuals were poorly educated, most were grade school and high school dropouts, and few had technical work background or had received any technical training.

(PE, FR-1, FR-2, FR-3)

4. Most of those individuals were living in overcrowded poor housing, had meager household effects, and had received poor health care services.

(PE)

5. Very few, if any, could have moved on their own or had the confidence, knowledge, and means of transportation to seek employment other than in their home environment.

(FR-1, FR-3, PE)

6. This project provided at least partial financial assistance to 2,495 clients. Total relocatee placements were close to 3,000 individuals.

(FR-3)

7. If the experience of recent years is representative, approximately 2,250 of the 2,495 relocatees were the "hard core", disadvantaged, unemployed poor.

(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3)

8. Of those relocated, about 60 percent were black, 55 percent were single, and 92 percent were males.

(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3)

9. Of those relocated, about 70 percent had remained in the demand area(s) at least two months; 50 percent remained at least six months.

(FR-1, FR-2, FR-3)

10. Of those relocated, about 75 percent were employed six months after being relocated with average employment rates of stayers being over 90 percent and leavers slightly over 60 percent. Those who were screened but not placed either locally or in relocation areas, were employed at an average rate of about 65 percent.

(FR-1, FR-3)

11. The unemployed disadvantaged poor will relocate for jobs and sufficient numbers will succeed (remain relocated and employed) to make relocation manpower services a viable program.

(FR-1, FR-3)

12. Project's costs/benefits study concluded that relocation was an exceptionally good investment of public funds.

(FR-3)

13. Project cost averages were exceptionally low when compared with other investments of public funds for impact upon the poor; examples include many manpower training programs.

(FR-2)

14. Relocation manpower services operational program (project) costs averages could be improved over those experienced by this Project in view of research orientation, lack of funding stability, and lack of longevity.

(FR-2, FR-3, PE)

15. Project's work supports the conclusion that relocating the unemployed poor could be a viable alternative to training. This is particularly true for those who can perform minimum wage jobs and who would not be accepted for higher than minimum wage jobs subsequent to being trained.

(PE)

16. A relocation manpower service can impact upon thousands of unemployed disadvantaged people in areas where no other manpower services are available. (Other than State employment service capability).

(PE)

17. Relocation services can balance factors of worker demand and supply.

(FR-2, PE)

18. A side benefit of relocation was the provision of opportunity for spouses to work, thus improving a family's standard of living.

(FR-1, FR-3, PE)

Chapter 4: Research Design and Data Base

Five hundred individuals were screened for placement by the Project from December, 1971 through February, 1973. Four hundred and thirteen were screened for relocation assistance, while 87 were screened for local job placement assistance. Those placed in local jobs were to serve as a control group. Of the 413 screened for relocation, 347 were taken for job interviews, 304 relocated, and 66 did not go for job interviews for one reason or another.

The information collected when the applicants were screened for job placement can be classified into eight major areas: (1) basic sociodemographic data, (2) financial or economic means data, (3) employment history/work experience, (4) living conditions, (5) family relationships, (6) attitudes toward the community, (7) attitudes toward past jobs, and (8) attitudes related to views of the world and of self. Data areas (6)-(8) provided very little useful information and were consequently relegated to a supportive status for interpretations of relationships where such support seemed necessary. Further information included (1) value of relocation for the applicant and his family, (2) costs of relocation for the applicant and his family, and (3) social service needs of applicant and family whether they received relocation services or not.

The follow-up survey which was planned for one year after the relocatees were hired was truncated such that the questionnaires were administered at from three to twelve months after placement. The truncation was precipitated by the Department of Labor notice in January, 1973 that Project operations, relocations as well as research, would cease on August 31, 1973, thus prohibiting twelve-month follow-ups for all those placed after May, 1972, or about 55 percent (169) of the relocatees. One of the direct results of such truncation is that the definition of relocatee stayer was anyone who remained in the new area anywhere from three to twelve months. The Project dispensed with the routine two-month and six-month staff contacts with the relocatees in anticipation of the twelve-month final follow-up survey; as a consequence, a somewhat higher than expected proportion of relocatee leavers proved extremely difficult to locate because of lack of reliable, recent addresses. Two of the major casualties of the notice to terminate Project activities were (1) a one-year follow-up of relocatees to determine a longer-range impact of relocation that was studied in the past at two or six months, and (2) intensive multiple variable analyses of the effects of changes in attitudes and communities and the impact of these changes upon the outcomes of the relocatees.

Of the 413 applicants screened for relocation, 312 were located for the follow-up survey; 100 percent of the stayers, 60 percent of the leavers, and 76 percent of the nonrelocatees were found and interviewed. The major reasons for not completing follow-up interviews for the remaining 101 applicants included (1) 68 had moved but could not be located for interview; (2) 18 whereabouts unknown; (3) 11 in military service; (4) 1 deceased; (5) 1 in prison; and (6) 2 refused to be interviewed.

In spite of the 24 percent loss, the resultant samples of relocatees and nonrelocatees were found to be representative of their respective subpopulations in the original applicant populations. Representativeness of samples were tested

with chi-square and analysis of variance techniques. Comparisons on the following variables at the 5 percent level of significance resulted in no significant differences: sex, race, marital status, work-related training, age, education, number of dependents, annual family income, and weeks unemployed prior to screening for placement.

Thus, there are two major sources of data, screening information and follow-up interviews. The description of the Project population (Chapter 5) will utilize the screening information for all the relocation applicants. The sociological analysis (Chapter 6) of the decisions to remain in or leave the new areas will utilize primarily the information for the original 413 relocation applicants, relying upon follow-up information when necessary to elaborate relationships. The economic analyses (Chapters 7 and 8) will utilize the screening and follow-up information for the applicants located for follow-up interviews. Technical discussions related to the economic analysis are found in Appendices A and B.

In contrast to past research conducted by the Project, the present data collection effort provided before- and after-relocation data to test for changes along a number of dimensions: (1) family income, (2) indebtedness, (3) community attitudes, (4) job attitudes, (5) world-view and self concept attitudes, (6) additional manpower training, (7) housing conditions and costs, (8) availability of household conveniences and appliances, (9) housing arrangements (renting, buying, rent-free), and (10) employment history. Consequently, changes that may have resulted from relocation can be explored.

The general analytic procedure will be to first determine which applicants are likely to relocate, then which relocatees are likely to remain in the new area, and finally ascertain the costs and benefits of relocation, particularly for the stayers and the leavers. Factors that precipitated decisions to relocate and decisions to leave the new area will be identified along with discussions of the significance of those factors. Further, benefits and costs related to both relocation and relocation stability (remaining in the new area) will be addressed.

The sociological analysis will utilize chi-square and analysis of variance tests to identify significant relationships among variables and suggest possible causality. The economic analysis will utilize multiple regression techniques to identify and predict payoffs and costs/benefits of relocation and relocation stability.

In summary, the major concerns in this report are (1) to whom relocation services were provided, (2) the impact of relocation upon those served by the Project, and (3) policy implications for a national relocation program that flow from the first two concerns. This report in conjunction with the other two reports prepared for Project phaseout provide vital answers to significant policy considerations for a national relocation program. Such considerations include (1) what kinds of people will be likely to relocate; (2) what kinds of people will be likely to remain in the new areas; (3) what kinds of payoffs are likely to society as well as the relocatees as a result of a relocation program; (4) what kinds of operational funding will be required; (5) what kinds of operational systems would be needed; and (6) what kinds of services other than financial assistance will be needed for the physical move of relocatees.

Chapter 5: Description of the Project Populations: Applicants and Relocatees

Introduction

To set the stage for the ensuing analyses, the major characteristics of the Project relocation applicants and relocatees are presented here to (1) show the extent of need for relocation or some other form of employment assistance, (2) outline the characteristics of those who are likely to be relocatees, and (3) place the data in a human resources context.

As previously stated, four-hundred and thirteen applicants were screened for relocation services during the 1971-1973 period. Three-hundred and four were relocated to new areas. In spite of the generally high extent of poverty and minority status among the applicant population, not all those screened for relocation were equally likely to relocate and not all those relocated were equally likely to benefit from relocation services. As will be shown later, those who are the most likely to relocate were not always the ones most likely to remain in the new areas and benefit from the opportunities the new areas offer.

The description of the populations will have three foci: (1) a profile of the personal characteristics of the two populations, (2) dimensions of relative need for relocation assistance, and (3) likelihoods of relocation. Relative need for relocation assistance is categorized into four areas: (1) financial need, (2) employability or quality of work experience, (3) standard of living, and (4) familial stresses and strains. Variables that indicate a reliability in prediction of who will relocate are summarized at the end of the chapter.

Need for Relocation Services

The need for relocation services has numerous dimensions. First, to what extent or degree does a person need to work full-time in order to support his family or be able to have a life style acceptable to him? Secondly, does the person have skills that are marketable in the world of work? Thirdly, can the person provide his own needs without resorting to migrate to find work? Fourthly, could he reasonably be expected to improve his economic and social opportunities and his standard of living without migrating? Fifthly, would migration result in undue stresses and strains within his family, affecting his marital relationship and his children's performance in school, weakening of strong family ties, decreasing the likelihood that his spouse would be able to work without having to assume child care costs, and so on? Sixthly, would the psychic benefits of migration outweigh the psychic costs? Finally, what would be his prospects of finding a suitable job relatively soon after migrating?

After outlining the personal characteristics of the applicant and relocatee populations, some of the above questions will be answered. All

the questions can be broadly stated as follows: What is the extent of need for and extent of benefit from relocation assistance (or any form of manpower program intervention) for the applicants screened for relocation assistance by the Project during 1971-1973?

Personal Characteristics

The total and relocatee populations are predominantly male, black, single, young, moderately to well educated, and without dependents (Table 1). Although the two populations are similar, the applicants were not equally likely to relocate: (1) males were more likely to relocate than females; (2) whites were more likely to relocate than blacks; (3) marrieds were more likely to relocate than singles; (4) those without dependents were more likely to relocate than those with dependents; (5) those with at least twelve years or less than nine years of education were more likely to relocate than the high school dropouts; and (6) age was not related to likelihood of relocation.

Relative Need for Relocation Assistance

Financial Need

The average annual family income of the applicants was $1,938 with amost three-fifths having incomes of $2,000 or less per year (Table 2). The relocatees were somewhat poorer than the general applicant population ($1,852 vs. $1,938 annual income) with the likelihood of relocation decreasing with the level of family income at the time of screening. Average annual family incomes in Arkansas and Mississippi in 1970 were $7,459 and $7,292 respectively.[10] In the two states combined, 14.7 percent of the families reported annual incomes of less than $2,000 in 1970;[11] 58.6 percent of the Project population reported similar family incomes. It is obvious that the families screened by the Project were significantly poorer than those in the general state populations.

While the amount of family income is an important aspect of financial need, family income alone is not clearly indicative of relative need. When family income is distributed among the members of the family, $4,000 provides more for a family of two than a family of four. Table 2 shows the distribution of the number of dependents of relocation applicants. The average family size is 5.1 persons (excluding applicants who were living alone). As a comparison, the average size of families who received food stamps in

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[10] 1970 Census for Arkansas, p. 207, and 1970 Census for Mississippi, p. 179.

[11] Ibid.

Table 1: Selected Characteristics of the Total and Relocatee Populations (From screening information)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Sex	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
--Male	340	82.3	259	85.2	76.2
--Female	73	17.7	45	14.8	61.6
Race	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
--White	83	20.1	65	21.4	78.3
--Black	330	79.9	239	78.6	72.4
Marital Status	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
--Married	119	28.8	96	31.6	80.7
--Not Married	294	71.2	208	68.4	70.7
Age	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
--18-20 years	187	45.3	136	44.7	72.7
--21-30 years	176	42.6	132	43.4	75.0
--30+ years	50	12.1	36	11.8	72.0
Education	411	100.0	302	100.0	73.5
--0-8 years	60	14.6	45	14.9	75.0
--9-11 years	156	38.0	108	35.8	69.2
--12 or more	195	47.4	149	49.3	76.4
Dependents	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
--No	236	57.1	178	58.6	75.4
--Yes	177	42.9	126	41.4	71.2

Table 2: Financial Situation of Total and Relocatee Populations
(Screening information)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
12-Month Family Income	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
None	24	5.8	17	5.6	70.8
$1-$2,000	218	52.8	168	55.3	77.1
$2,001-$4,000	128	31.0	91	29.9	71.1
$4,000 +	43	10.4	28	9.2	65.1
(Average)	$1938		$1852		
Number of Dependents	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
None	236	57.1	178	58.6	75.4
One	52	12.6	34	11.2	65.4
Two	47	11.4	29	9.5	61.7
Three	38	9.2	30	9.9	78.9
Four	18	4.4	15	4.9	83.3
Five or more	22	5.3	18	5.9	81.8
Debt Obligations	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	122	29.5	87	28.6	71.3
No	291	70.5	217	71.4	74.6
(Average)	$364		$387		
Reserve Funds	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	57	13.8	37	12.2	64.9
No	356	86.2	267	87.8	75.0
(Average)	N/A		N/A		

Table 2: Financial Situation of Total and Relocatee Populations (Continued)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
"Welfare" Family*	412	100.0	303	100.0	73.5
Yes	165	40.0	126	41.6	76.4
No	216	52.4	153	50.5	70.8
No Information	31	7.5	24	7.9	77.4
Spouse Employed	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	27	6.5	15	4.9	55.6
No	97	23.5	84	27.6	86.6
No Information	9	2.2	3	1.0	33.3
No Spouse	280	67.8	202	66.4	72.1
Possession of Car	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	130	31.5	102	33.6	78.5
No	283	68.5	202	66.4	71.4
Hourly Wage Expectation	413	100.1	304	100.0	73.6
Don't Know	28	6.8	18	5.9	64.3
$1.00-$2.00	239	57.9	175	57.6	73.2
$2.01-$2.50	69	16.7	53	17.4	76.8
$2.51-$3.00	33	8.0	26	8.6	78.8
$3.00 +	44	10.7	32	10.5	72.7

* Some were receiving or had received some kind of welfare assistance

Mississippi in 1972 was 3.9 persons, considerably smaller than the families of Project applicants.[12]

The OEO poverty criteria include combinations of family income and family size. Applying those criteria to the Project populations, 73 percent of the applicants were poor while 75 percent of the relocatees were poor (Table 3). The poor populations of Arkansas and Mississippi in 1970 constituted 22.8 percent and 28.9 percent respectively of the families in the two states.[13] The OEO poverty criteria include factors in addition to family size and income by also incorporating those who are disadvantaged by virtue of their (1) education, (2) minority group status, (3) age, and/or (4) physical handicaps. Table 3 shows that almost 94 percent of the applicants and 93 percent of the relocatees were disadvantaged. When the poverty and disadvantaged criteria are combined, over 70 percent of both populations can be classified as "disadvantaged poor" with only slightly over 4 percent being "nondisadvantaged nonpoor" (Table 4).

These broad indications suggest a high level of gross relative need for social service interventions, one type of which is relocation to areas of better economic and social opportunities. Yet the Project applicants did not respond according to their relative need. Rearranging Table 3, Table 5 shows that when the number of disadvantaged characteristics is controlled, those that were poor were more likely to relocate than those not poor. If being disadvantaged is an indication of need resulting from discrimination, then those who were more disadvantaged would have more need. The applicants did not relocate in accordance to the degree of their "disadvantagedness". Apparently, the applicants interpreted their needs and the alternatives for satisfying those needs and reached a conclusion different from what would have been expected on an "objective, logical basis".

Two significant factors of financial need that are easily measurable by the applicant are those of indebtedness and savings. Logically, if indebtedness is high, savings are low or nonexistent, and the individual is unemployed, he might be considered a prime candidate for relocation to a job. In Table 2, it was seen that (1) indebtedness was not a motivating factor in the decision to relocate; and (2) those without savings were the more likely to relocate. In the case of indebtedness, there was a slight, though not significant, tendency for those with debts not to relocate.

Applicants who had been receiving welfare or who had someone in their family who had received welfare payments in the past might be more prone to

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[12]Calculated from the FY 1974 Mississippi CAMPS Plan, subsection written for the Mississippi Department of Public Welfare, Food Stamp and Food Distribution Programs. The aim of the Food Stamp Program is "to improve the diets of low-income families". Those eligible for food stamps include the unemployed and underemployed, the disabled, handicapped, and elderly people on Social Security or other fixed pensions.

[13]1970 Arkansas Census, op. cit., p. 196, and 1970 Mississippi Census, op. cit., p. 168.

Table 3: Poverty and Combinations (degrees) of Disadvantagedness among Total and Relocatee Populations

Category*	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Poor +3	81	19.7	62	20.4	76.5
Poor +2	152	36.9	109	35.8	71.7
Poor +1	60	14.6	51	16.8	85.0
Poor only	9	2.2	8	2.6	88.9
Not poor +3	25	6.1	16	5.3	64.0
Not poor +2	32	7.8	17	5.6	53.1
Not poor +1	36	8.7	27	8.9	75.0
Not poor only	17	4.1	14	4.6	82.4
TOTAL	412	100.0	304	100.0	73.8

* "3", "2", and "1" refer to number of disadvantaged characteristics (age, education, and race) in addition to being poor or nonpoor.

Table 4: The Poor and the Disadvantaged among Total and Relocatee Populations

Category	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Disadvantaged Poor	293	71.1	222	73.0	75.8
Nondisadvantaged Poor	9	2.2	8	2.6	88.9
Disadvantaged Nonpoor	93	22.6	60	19.7	64.5
Nondisadvantaged Nonpoor	17	4.1	14	4.6	82.4
TOTAL	412	100.0	304	99.9	73.8

Table 5: Disadvantaged Characteristics of Total and Relocatee Populations, Controlling for Poverty

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Poor +3	81	19.7	62	20.4	76.5
Not poor +3	25	6.1	16	5.3	64.0
Poor +2	152	36.9	109	35.8	71.7
Not poor +2	32	7.8	17	5.6	53.1
Poor +1	60	14.6	51	16.8	85.0
Not poor +1	36	8.7	27	8.9	75.0
Poor	9	2.2	8	2.6	88.9
Not poor	17	4.1	14	4.6	82.4
TOTAL	412	100.1	304	100.0	73.8

relocate to jobs than those not from "welfare families". The data in Table 2 show this assumption has some tentative support.

Married applicants who were the sole wage earner should be more likely to relocate than those whose spouses were working. They did not have a secondary source of steady, however small, income. Also, if the spouse were already working, giving up that job even though it might have been paying very little, to move to another area might have been considered too great a risk of lost income. Table 2 shows that married applicants with working spouses were very unlikely to relocate. Those whose spouses were not working were more likely to relocate than applicants without spouses.

Less than one-third of the applicants had their own means of transportation (Table 2). Two-thirds needed assistance getting to their job interviews and getting to and from work whether they relocated or not. Perhaps in anticipation of some transportation problems, those without cars were less likely to relocate than those who had cars.

Financial need may or may not be reflected in wage aspirations. Wage aspirations may be a reflection of past earnings history. We would expect that those whose wage expections were high in comparison to the wages of local jobs would be highly likely to relocate, provided the relocation job wages were relatively close to those anticipated. Table 2 indicates that relocation rates increased with anticipated wages but dropped after anticipated wages of over $3.00 per hour. Comparison of this trend with that of annual family income (Table 2) leads one to suspect that those with high wage earnings prior to their unemployment were reluctant to move to a new job that probably would pay less. Ingalls Shipyards in Pascagoula, Mississippi was the only employer that paid over $3.00 per hour on a routine basis.

Employability

Slightly over two-thirds of the applicants had worked before applying for relocation services (Table 6). Their recent work experience can be summarized as follows: (1) 26 percent received less than the $1.60 per hour minimum wage and 75 percent received less than $2.00 per hour; (2) 73 percent had worked for only one employer; (3) the primary places of prior employment were agriculture, industry, and nondomestic services, with industry being the predominant source of most recent employment; (4) over 96 percent of prior jobs were full-time; (5) absence from work was fairly infrequent; (6) illness accounted for the vast majority of work absences; (7) very few were fired from their most recent job, while 35 percent had been laid off; (8) two-thirds had been on their most recent job 28 weeks or less; (9) 56 percent had 28 weeks or less of wage income in the 52 weeks prior to applying for relocation; and (10) 57 percent had worked 28 weeks or less during the 52 weeks prior to screening.

About 60 percent of the applicants had received some kind of manpower training, whether basic education, vocational-technical education, or both.

Table 6: Employment History of Total and Relocatee Populations
(Screening information)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Labor Force Experience	412	100.0	304	100.0	73.8
Yes	283	68.7	211	69.4	74.6
No	129	31.3	93	30.6	72.1
Recent Job Wage Rate	412	100.0	303	100.0	73.5
No Prior Job	130	31.6	94	31.0	72.3
$1.00 - $1.50	73	17.7	63	20.8	86.3
$1.51 - $2.00	137	33.2	103	34.0	75.2
$2.00 +	72	17.5	43	14.2	59.7
Number Prior Employers	411	100.0	304	100.0	74.0
None	127	30.9	94	30.9	74.0
One	208	50.6	154	50.7	74.0
Two	60	14.6	43	14.1	71.7
Three or More	16	3.9	13	4.3	81.3
Industrial Classification of Prior Job	412	100.0	304	100.0	73.8
No Prior Job	129	31.3	93	30.6	72.1
Agriculture, Forestry, etc.	53	12.9	49	16.1	92.5
Industry	101	24.5	70	23.0	69.3
Construction	29	7.0	18	5.9	62.1
Commerce	28	6.8	20	6.6	71.4
Services	59	14.3	44	14.5	74.6
Government	13	3.2	10	3.3	76.9
Type of Employment	412	100.0	303	100.0	73.5
No Prior Job	129	31.3	93	30.7	72.1
Full-Time	273	66.3	200	66.0	73.3
Part-Time	10	2.4	10	3.3	100.0
No. Days Missed from Work in Past 12 Mos.	407	99.9	304	99.9	74.7
No Prior Job	129	31.7	94	30.9	71.2
None	125	30.7	84	27.6	65.6
1 - 5 Days	106	26.0	84	27.6	79.2
5 + Days	47	11.5	42	13.8	47.2

Table 6: Employment History of Total and Relocatee Populations (Continued)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Reasons Absent From Work (MRJ)	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
No Prior Job	129	31.2	94	30.9	72.9
Personal Matters	21	5.1	18	5.9	85.7
Transportation	14	3.4	12	3.9	85.7
Illness	102	24.7	79	26.0	77.5
Other	22	5.3	20	6.6	90.9
Not Absent	125	30.3	81	26.6	64.8
Decision to Leave MRJ	412	99.9	303	100.0	73.5
No Prior Job	129	31.3	93	30.7	72.1
Fired	15	3.6	11	3.6	73.3
Resigned	169	41.0	130	42.9	77.0
Laid Off	99	24.0	69	22.8	70.1
Number of Weeks on Most Recent Job	411	100.0	304	100.0	74.0
No Prior Job	127	30.9	93	30.6	73.2
1 - 4	39	9.5	23	7.6	59.0
5 - 12	71	17.3	51	16.8	71.8
13 - 28	81	19.7	60	19.7	74.1
29 - 52	93	22.6	77	25.3	82.8
Weeks With Wage Income	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
No Wage Income	143	34.6	102	33.6	71.3
1 - 8	45	10.9	29	9.5	64.4
9 - 16	46	11.1	33	10.9	71.7
17 - 28	59	14.3	45	14.8	76.3
29 - 40	61	14.8	50	16.4	82.0
41 - 52	59	14.3	45	14.8	76.3
Weeks Employed	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
None	136	32.9	96	31.6	71.1
1 - 8	42	10.2	25	8.2	60.0
9 - 16	49	11.9	37	12.2	75.5
17 - 28	64	15.5	50	16.4	78.1
29 - 40	64	15.5	50	16.4	78.1
41 - 52	58	14.0	46	15.1	79.3
Type of Training	413	99.9	304	100.0	73.6
Basic and Vo-Tech	56	13.6	40	13.2	71.4
Basic Only	103	24.9	78	25.6	75.7
Vo-Tech Only	79	19.1	54	17.8	68.4
Training not Classifiable	13	3.1	12	3.9	92.3
No Training	162	39.2	120	39.5	74.1

The predominant type of training was basic education with vocational-technical a close second. Only about 14 percent of the applicants had received both basic and vo-tech training. Most of the basic education consisted of ABE and job preparation given by the Concentrated Employment Program (CEPs) in Arkansas and the Mississippi Delta region. The majority of the vo-tech training was from MDTA programs separately or linked with CEP.

Now that the employment histories have been summarized, it is necessary to turn to the relationship between these histories and the likelihood to relocate. There was no significant difference in likelihood to relocate in terms of past labor force experience. It is possible that the employers were more likely to offer jobs to those with prior experience, yet the relocation rates hardly differ (74.6% vs. 72.1% for the inexperienced). Those who had earned less than the minimum wage were the most likely to relocate while those earning over $2.00 per hour on their most recent job were the least likely to relocate. The relocation rate sagged somewhat for those who had earned between $1.50 and $2.00 per hour, possibly because most of the relocation jobs paid in that range. Prior job mobility (number of employers) appears unrelated to likelihoods to relocate. Those who had been employed in agriculture were extremely likely to relocate (92.5% relocated), while those who had been employed in industry or construction were the least likely to relocate, possibly because they had been laid off and were expecting to be recalled to work. Those who had worked for the government were primarily ex-military personnel who had returned home to find no work that matched their military training and accepted relocation as an opportunity to find suitable work elsewhere.

Those with no prior history of work absences were the least likely to relocate while those with absences due to "personal matters" and "transportation problems" were the most likely to reloc[illegible] As will be seen later, those with "transportation problems" conti[illegible] to have similar problems as they were extremely likely to leave the rei[illegible]ion area because of "transportation problems". Those who had been laid [illegible] from their most recent job were the least likely to relocate, while those who had resigned were the most likely to relocate.

The likelihood of relocation increased with the number of weeks of wage employment, the number of weeks on the most recent job, and the number of weeks employed during the 52 weeks prior to applying for relocation services. This is partially due to the relatively high incidence of marrieds and older persons with (1) prior work experience and (2) more weeks of wage earnings prior to screening. The younger applicants had little work experience of any duration.

Those with only basic education were the most likely to relocate, partially due to the fact that most of these applicants were screened in the poorest area in Arkansas, an area of extremely few local employment opportunities. The vo-tech trainees were screened in urban areas where local job opportunities were more abundant; if the relocation job interview showed little promise, the applicant probably would wait to find work at home, especially since he had acquired a marketable skill.

Living Conditions

So far it has been shown that the applicants were predominantly poor and disadvantaged. They were also products, as it were, of relatively poor living conditions (Table 7). Only 43 percent assessed their housing as better than adequate. Thirty-seven percent were from very crowded homes with an average of three or more persons per bedroom. Over a quarter of the applicants were from rural areas. Another quarter were from small towns of less than 10,000 inhabitants. Employment opportunities are scarcer in small towns and rural areas than in larger towns and metropolitan areas. While all the residences but one had electricity, only 88 percent had running cold water, 84 percent had running hot water, and 84 percent had indoor bathrooms (Table 8). The scarcest household conveniences were clothes dryers, dishwashers, color TVs, and air conditioners.

Responses to housing conditions are unclear except that those who had either very poor or very adequate housing were the least likely to relocate. The extent of crowding---persons per bedroom---appears unrelated to likelihood to relocate, although those from homes with over three bedrooms were the least likely to move. The only interesting, i.e., significant, relationship in this group is that the likelihood of relocation dropped markedly as the size of the home town increased. Four of the major demand areas to which the relocatees were moved and to which the applicants were taken for job interviews were metropolitan areas---Jackson and Pascagoula, Mississippi; Little Rock, Arkansas; and Memphis; all have attracted a large number of migrants from the rural areas in the three states. Although most of the differences are not statistically significant, those applicants that indicated lack of given conveniences and appliances were more likely to relocate.

Family Situation

Since the strength of family ties has been shown to be significantly related to likelihoods to migrate, it should be related to likelihoods to relocate (assisted migration). Table 9 presents in summary form some of the available information on family relationships. Most of the respondents were still living with their parents or close relatives. Fifty-eight percent of the applicants had no dependents other than themselves. Thirteen percent of the respondents were heads of households without a spouse. The majority of the applicants had strong family ties as evidenced by (1) living with their parents or relatives or (2) having their own families as heads of households with spouses. However, nineteen percent of the applicants had come from homes with only one parent residing there or had lived with guardians; homes without both parents are sometimes called "broken homes". The incidence of broken homes is higher among the relocation applicants

Table 7: Living Conditions of Total and Relocatee Populations
(Screening information)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Condition of Housing	371	100.0	271	99.9	73.0
Very Good	29	7.8	18	6.6	62.1
Good	129	34.8	96	35.4	74.4
Adequate	150	40.4	112	41.3	74.7
Poor	54	14.6	40	14.8	74.1
Very Poor	9	2.4	5	1.8	55.6
Number of Persons Per Bedroom	371	100.0	271	100.0	73.0
One	78	21.0	58	21.4	74.4
Two	154	41.5	112	41.3	72.7
Three	105	28.3	78	28.8	74.3
Three +	34	9.2	23	8.5	67.6
Size of Town	409	100.0	303	100.0	74.1
Rural Route	108	26.4	94	31.0	87.0
1 - 9,999	103	25.2	82	27.1	79.6
10,000 - 24,999	166	40.6	108	35.6	65.1
24,999+	32	7.8	19	6.3	59.4

Table 8: Household Conveniences of Total and Relocatee Populations*

Household Conveniences		Total Population	%	Relocation Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Electricity		(413)	(100.0)	(304)	(100.0)	(73.6)
	Yes	412	99.8	303	99.7	73.5
	No	1	0.2	1	0.3	100.0
Gas	Yes	389	94.2	290	95.4	75.0
	No	24	5.8	14	4.6	58.3
Running Hot Water	Yes	349	84.5	263	86.5	75.4
	No	64	15.5	41	13.5	64.1
Running Cold Water	Yes	365	88.4	270	88.8	74.0
	No	48	11.6	34	11.2	70.8
Indoor Bathroom	Yes	349	84.5	261	85.6	75.1
	No	64	15.5	43	14.4	67.2
Refrigerator	Yes	406	98.3	298	98.0	73.4
	No	7	1.7	6	2.0	85.7
Clothes Washer	Yes	182	44.1	127	41.8	69.8
	No	231	55.9	177	58.2	76.6
Clothes Dryer	Yes	50	12.1	40	13.2	80.0
	No	363	87.9	264	86.8	72.2
Air Conditioner	Yes	83	20.1	62	20.4	74.7
	No	330	79.9	242	79.6	73.3
Dishwasher	Yes	12	2.9	10	3.3	83.3
	No	401	97.1	294	96.7	73.3
TV (b/w)	Yes	346	83.8	256	84.2	74.0
	No	67	16.2	48	15.8	71.6
TV (color)	Yes	48	11.6	33	10.9	68.8
	No	365	88.4	271	89.1	74.2

*In all but two instances, refrigerator and clothes dryer, those without a given convenience were less likely to relocate. Even though only a few of the differences are statistically significant the pattern is nevertheless quite notable--perhaps a scale exists.

Table 9: Family Situation of Total and Relocatee Populations
(Screening information)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Type of Housing	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Rent Free	271	65.6	198	65.1	73.1
Renting	121	29.3	90	29.6	74.4
Buying	21	5.1	16	5.3	76.2
Type of Family	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Respondent Only	240	58.1	178	58.6	74.2
Respondent and Spouse	19	4.6	15	4.9	78.9
Respondent, Spouse and Children	100	24.2	81	26.6	81.0
Respondent and Children	47	11.4	27	8.9	57.4
Respondent and Others	7	1.7	3	1.0	42.9
Head of Household (Family of Birth)	413	100.0	304	100.1	73.6
Father	334	80.9	244	80.3	73.1
Mother	69	16.7	51	16.8	73.9
Guardian	10	2.4	9	3.0	90.0
Friends or Relatives in Supply Area	371	100.0	271	100.0	73.0
Yes	328	88.4	242	89.3	73.8
No	43	11.6	29	10.7	67.4
Family Happines (Family of Birth)	372	100.0	272	100.0	73.1
Very Happy	44	11.8	29	10.7	65.9
Happy	193	51.9	144	52.9	74.6
Average	115	30.9	84	30.9	73.0
Unhappy	17	4.6	14	5.1	82.4
Very Unhappy	3	.8	1	0.4	33.3
Nons hool Age Children	372	100.0	272	100.0	73.1
Yes	94	25.3	71	26.1	75.5
No	53	14.2	37	13.6	69.8
No Children	225	60.5	164	60.3	72.9
School Age Children	372	100.0	272	100.0	73.1
Yes	55	14.8	41	15.1	74.5
No	92	24.7	67	24.6	72.8
No Children	225	60.5	164	60.3	72.9

Table 9: Family Situation of Total and Relocatee Populations (Continued)

Characteristics	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Care of Nonschool Age Children	372	100.0	272	100.0	73.1
Own Home	71	19.1	60	22.1	84.5
Relatives Home	12	3.2	5	1.8	41.7
Nonhome	12	3.2	7	2.6	58.3
Not Applicable	52	14.0	36	13.2	69.2
No children	225	60.5	164	60.3	72.9
Cost of Relocation to Family	412	100.0	303	99.9	73.5
Very Great	58	14.1	47	15.5	81.0
Great	113	27.4	81	26.7	71.7
Average	157	38.1	116	38.3	73.9
Small	18	4.4	14	4.6	77.8
Very Small	10	2.4	7	2.3	70.0
Don't Know	56	13.6	38	12.5	67.9
Benefits of Relocation to Family	411	100.0	302	100.0	73.5
Very Great	176	42.8	131	43.4	74.4
Great	175	42.6	129	42.7	73.7
Average	44	10.7	35	11.6	79.5
Small	2	.5	0	0.0	0.0
Very Small	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0
Don't Know	14	3.4	7	2.3	50.0

than would be expected, based upon comparable 1970 census figures for Mississippi and Arkansas.[14]

The majority of applicants had friends or relatives living in their home community which is to be expected since most of the applicants were from small towns where families are still fairly well united and where friendships are easy to form and maintain. Constant migration and other changes in residences are less prevalent in these areas, thus affecting on a lesser scale the breakdown of nuclear families and circles of friends.

Very few of the applicants grew up in families that were characterized by hostility, bitterness, and sadness. Almost two-thirds of the applicants said their families were happy or very happy.

Sixty-four percent of the applicants with families had children that were not of school age. Three-fourths of the nonschool age children were cared for in their own home with 12.6 percent being cared for by relatives and 12.6 percent being cared for in nurseries and day care centers. Those who relocated would have to find someone to take care of their children, make different arrangements without being able to rely on relatives, and would have to find new day care services. If the spouse wanted to work in the new area, an even greater proportion of the applicants would have day care service problems for the non-school age children. Those with school-age children (37.4 percent) would have to time their relocation so that their children would not be taken out of school or have to start late. However, their unemployment and lack of sufficient income may not be timed in order to avoid postponing moving until those children are out of school (such as during school holidays or during the summer).

Table 10 summarizes the responses of the applicants when asked if there were any "problems" in their families, particularly in the families in which they grew up (this was the family of reference for most of the applicants who were still living with their parents or relatives). The predominant "problems" were (1) not enough luxuries, (2) poor housing, and (3) not enough food and/or clothing. Very few indicated (1) lack of friends, (2) existence of hostility in the home, or (3) existence of family members with personal handicaps. Between seven and thirteen percent (1) experienced lack of parental affection (7.2 percent), (2) knew only one parent (7.5 percent), (3) grew up in a broken home (10.5 percent), or (4) some of the children had problems in school (12.8 percent). All in all, the primary problems of their families were economic ones, not emotional or relational ones.

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[14]In 1970, 13.4% of Mississippi families had a female head of household, while in Arkansas 10.2% of families had a female head of household (1970 Census for Mississippi, p. 148, and 1970 Census for Arkansas, p. 176). Slightly over half (51%) of the applicants were from towns of less than 5,000 inhabitants or gave rural routes as their address(es). "Father-absent" homes are more likely to be in urban areas than in nonurban areas (ibid.). For example, in Mississippi 15.6% of urban households with families were headed by females, while 11.6% of nonurban households had female heads. Both of these figures are substantially less than the 16.7% reported by relocation applicants. The comparable Arkansas figures are even lower.

Table 10 : Family Problems of Total and Relocatee Populations
(Screening information)

Family Problems	Total Population	%	Relocation Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Lack of Parental Affection	413	99.9	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	30	7.2	24	7.9	80.0
No	342	82.8	248	81.6	72.5
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Not Enough Food/ Clothing	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	81	19.6	64	21.0	79.0
No	291	70.5	208	68.4	71.5
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Poor Housing	413	99.9	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	115	27.8	85	28.0	73.9
No	257	62.2	187	61.5	72.8
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Not Enough Luxuries	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	93	22.5	77	25.3	82.8
No	279	67.6	195	64.1	69.9
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Hostility in Home	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	14	3.4	11	3.6	78.6
No	358	86.7	261	85.9	72.9
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Not Enough Friends	413	99.9	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	8	1.9	5	1.6	62.5
No	364	88.1	267	87.8	73.4
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Problems in School	413	99.9	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	53	12.8	36	11.8	67.9
No	319	77.2	236	77.6	74.0
No Information	41	9.9	32	10.5	78.0
Personal Handicaps	413	100.0	304	100.0	73.6
Yes	14	3.4	12	3.9	85.7
No	356	86.2	258	84.9	72.5
No Information	43	10.4	34	11.2	79.1

Table 10: Family Problems of Total and Relocatee Populations (Continued)

Family Problems	Total Population	%	Relocation Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Grew up in Broken Home	413	100.1	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	42	10.2	32	10.5	76.2
No	329	79.7	239	78.6	72.6
No Information	42	10.2	33	10.9	78.6
Knew Only one Parent	413	100.0	304	99.9	73.6
Yes	31	7.5	25	8.2	80.6
No	340	82.3	246	80.9	72.4
No Information	42	10.2	33	10.8	78.6

Finally, the applicants' views of the value of relocation to them and their families are summarized. Fourteen percent of the applicants were not able to assess the costs of relocation to them but only 3.4 percent were unable to assess the benefits of relocation. Forty-one percent viewed the costs of relocation as being great or very great, while 85.4 percent saw the possible benefits as being equally great or very great. Only 6.8 percent viewed the costs of relocation as almost negligible (small or very small costs) and less than one percent saw the possible benefits as being negligible.

Were these factors in their family situations related to their likelihoods of relocation? There were no significant differences in likelihoods to relocate between applicants with different housing arrangements at the time of screening, i.e., those who were living with their parents and those renting or buying were equally likely to relocate. Those who were living with their parents and those who had their own families were equally likely to relocate. However, those with dependents, primarily those living away from their families of birth, were more likely to relocate than those without dependents. The ones least likely to relocate were those with dependents but without spouses. This latter group of applicants along with those with no dependents were previously classified as "single" and were significantly less likely to relocate than the married applicants (See Table 1).

Those applicants without father figures in their family were no more likely to relocate than applicants who had fathers. Two factors would possibly affect their likelihood of relocation: (1) they would be less likely to relocate if they felt the need to remain at home and provide partial financial support for their family; or (2) they would be more likely to relocate because (a) broken-home families are more likely to be poor than intact homes, and, as a consequence, (b) they might be likely to relocate to escape poverty and its accompanying life style.

One of the curious, as yet unexplainable, findings regarding likelihoods to relocate is that those with friends or relatives in their home communities were more likely to relocate than those with no such ties. The reverse was anticipated. Until more is known about those forty-three applicants without friends and family in their home community, interpretation of this finding must be postponed.

There is a moderately positive relationship between overall family happiness and the likelihood to relocate. This finding is a tentative one until some interpretations can be made. Although the number of individuals involved is small, those applicants who indicated either lack of parental affection or hostility in the home were more likely to relocate than those who indicated the reverse (Table 10). It is quite possible that the global assessment of family happiness (and tranquility) is not very precise, that components of family happiness need to be assessed for clues to likelihoods of relocation.

Applicants with children who were not of school age were about as likely to relocate as those with children of school age. It is possible,

though not verified at this time, that those with school age children, by and large, timed their moves to coincide with school holidays and summer vacations. It is also possible, although not verifiable at this time, that those with school age children considered the possible gains from relocation to outweigh any possible loss of school attendance by their children. Also, the Project field staff may have been successful in arranging a fairly rapid relocation, perhaps during a weekend, so that time lost in school attendance was minimal or nonexistent. Those who cared for their nonschool age children at home were much more likely to relocate than those who had to make arrangements for child care outside the home, whether with relatives or with day care centers and nurseries. The anticipation of not being able to make such arrangements after relocation might have reduced their enthusiasm about moving.

Although many of the differences were not statistically significant, in eight of the ten aspects of family problems, those who indicated "problems" in or for their family were more likely to relocate than those who indicated a lack of that specific problem. In the other two cases, "not enough friends" and "personal handicaps" in the family, the numbers upon which the relocation likelihoods were computed were so small as to produce unreliable, unstable percentage likelihoods.

While a number of family situation aspects that affect likelihoods of relocation have been pointed out, the strength of family ties appears not strong enough to significantly affect the likelihood of relocation. Table 11 shows that those who indicated "family obligations" as significant obstacles to their relocation were much more likely to relocate than those who gave nonfamily reasons or more specific "family" reasons such as spouse working or recently divorced or children in school.

Summary

Who was likely to relocate? Below is a listing of characteristics of those who were likely to relocate with the characteristics grouped along the lines of the prior analysis. Of course, if many of these characteristics were combined in a predictive model, some or many would not be important by themselves, but only in conjunction with others.

Personal Characteristics

1. Male
2. White
3. Married
4. Education: 0-8 years, 12 or more
5. No dependents
6. No age differences

Table 11: Factors That Would Interfere With Moving
(Screening information)

Factors	Total Population	%	Relocatee Population	%	Percent Relocatees
Family Obligations	376	91.3	289	95.4	76.9
Other Family	9	2.2	2	0.7	22.2
Non-Family	27	6.5	12	4.0	44.4
TOTAL	412	100.0	303	100.1	73.5

Financial Situation

1. Lower family income(s)
2. Poor more than nonpoor
3. Nondisadvantaged more than disadvantaged
4. No dependents, three or more dependents
5. Spouse unemployed
6. Car

Employment History

1. Unrelated to labor force experience
2. Less than minimum wage for prior job; over $2.00 per hour least likely
3. Employed previously in agriculture; prior employment in manufacturing and construction least likely
4. History of absences from work (one or more absences per year)
5. Lower average weeks unemployed prior to screening for relocation
6. Basic education or nc training

Living Conditions

1. Response to housing conditions unclear
2. Small town or rural origin

Family Situation

1. Spouse and/or other dependents; without spouse but with dependents least likely
2. Family and friendship ties in home community
3. Children cared for at home
4. "Family obligations" as major obstacle to relocation

As already mentioned, if many of these characteristics and variables were put together in a multivariate analysis, many would not be important or significant in predicting who would relocate. Since the major thrust of this research has been to predict who would stay in the demand area

once relocated, this multivariate analysis for predicting relocation was not conducted. It is an area of great research need and has important implications for relocation recruitment. The following chapters analyze the characteristics of the relocatees, both stayers and leavers, the factors that result in staying in the demand area, and the payoffs for staying in the demand area.

Chapter 6: Sociological Analysis of Relocation Stability: Causes, Benefit and Costs

Introduction

Relocation assistance is provided to individuals and families who move to another community to accept jobs. By remaining in the new community more benefits will accrue than by returning home after a short period of time (see Chapters 7 and 8). Data from this project and others have shown that approximately one-fifth of the relocatees return home within the first month after the initial move; by six months after the initial move about one-half have returned. It is of utmost importance to ascertain the dimensions of this "instability" for the following reasons: (1) high return rates challenge the validity of the basic assumptions of worker relocation; (2) the aspirations of the relocatees may be more important than objective living conditions or possible benefits that would accrue by remaining in the new community; (3) relocation may not be the best alternative to eliminating chronic unemployment in rural areas; especially for the young members of the labor force; (4) more detailed information about the relocation process and its payoffs to relocatees may be required in order to forecast relocation outcomes on an individual basis; (5) the adjustment of individuals to new communities may be as important as adjustment to new jobs; and (6) variable sequences of the relocation process may be necessary for different types of relocatees in order to increase their likelihoods of relocation stability.

A prior report by the Project identified some of the salient differences between those who were stable relocatees ("stayers") and those who were unstable relocatees ("leavers").[15] Those differences, some of which will be examined in this report for verification, are as follows: (1) females were more likely to stay than males; (2) marrieds were more likely to stay than singles; (3) the likelihood of staying increased with the level of education, age, and family size of the relocatee(s); (4) those who received higher relocation wages were more likely to be stayers; (5) those who were indebted were more likely to be stayers; (6) those with savings were more likely to be stayers; (7) those with prior geographic mobility were more likely to be stayers; (8) those who were placed in jobs that required usage of prior training or work experience were more likely to be stayers; (9) those who had relatives and/or friends in the new community were more likely to be stayers; (10) those who had healthy, positive self-concepts were more likely to be stayers; (11) those whose families were satisfied with the decision to relocate were more likely to stay; (12) those who had paid their own housing costs prior to relocation were more likely to be stayers; (13) those who had their own means of transportation were more likely to be stayers; and (14) those who were unemployed (prior to screening for relocation) for reasons other than illness or enrollment in a training program were more likely to be stayers.

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[15] Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc., Relocating the Unemployed: Dimensions of Success, 1973.

The same report pointed out some of the benefits from relocation stability, or staying in the new area: (1) promotions; (2) over-time work; (3) pay raises; (4) improved standard of living; (5) more chances of finding another job if the relocation job proved unsatisfactory; and (6) better housing. Some of the costs of relocation stability included (1) estrangement from family and old friends; (2) increased cost of living; (3) having to make important decisions for the first time (for many of the young, singles); and (4) considerable effort in establishing new friendships.

This chapter will continue with some of the clues uncovered in that prior report in an effort to (1) replicate prior findings to substantiate stable, reliable relationships, and (2) more satisfactorily elaborate some relationships that were unclear in the prior report. Where appropriate, findings from both research periods will be compared.

The same format is used as in the preceding population description. "Who were the stayers?" and "Who was likely to stay?" are the two major questions in part one of this chapter. Stable relocatees, or stayers, are defined as those who remained in the new area at least 3 months. Some of the reasons for relocation stability are examined in part two of this chapter.

Personal Characteristics

The stayers were predominantly male, black, not married, 21-30 years of age, high school graduates, and with dependents (Table 12). However, females were more likely to stay than males, marrieds more than nonmarrieds, and those with dependents more than those without dependents. Furthermore, the likelihood of staying increased markedly with the age of the relocatee. Those with high school education were the most likely to stay with those who were high school dropouts being the least likely to stay. There was no significant racial difference in likelihood of staying.

Financial Situation

The stayers were mostly in the $2,000 - $4,000 prerelocation annual family income range, with no dependents or two - four dependents, and with no indebtedness and no savings (Table 13). They also tended not to have a car and not be from welfare families. If they had spouses, it was likely the spouses were not working prior to relocation. The most common hourly wage expectation of stayers was between $1.60 and $2.00 per hour with the average being higher than that of the leavers.

With the exception of 17 relocatees (11 stayers and 6 leavers) who reported no annual family income prior to relocation,[16] the likelihood of

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[16]Probably mistook "family income" for "personal income".

Table 12: Selected Characteristics of Relocatee Stayers and Leavers (From screening information)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Sex	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
--Male	97	82.2	162	87.1	259	37.5
--Female	21	17.8	24	12.9	45	46.7
Race	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
--White	27	22.9	38	20.4	65	41.5
--Black	91	77.1	148	79.6	239	38.1
Marital Status	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
--Married	52	44.1	44	23.7	96	54.2
--Not Married	66	55.9	142	76.3	208	31.7
Age	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
--18-20 years	41	34.7	95	51.1	136	30.1
--21-30 years	59	50.0	73	39.2	132	44.7
--30+ years	18	15.3	18	9.7	36	50.0
Education	118	100.1	184	100.0	302	39.1
--0-8 years	16	13.6	29	15.8	45	35.6
--9-11 years	31	26.3	77	41.8	108	28.7
--12 or more	71	60.2	78	42.4	149	47.7
Dependents	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.9
--No	55	46.6	123	66.1	178	30.9
--Yes	63	53.4	63	33.9	126	50.0

Table 13: Financial Situation of Stayer and Leaver Populations
(From screening information)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
12-Month Family Income	118	100.0	186	99.9	304	38.8
None	11	9.3	6	3.2	17	64.7
$1-$2,000	50	42.4	118	63.4	168	29.8
$2,001-$4,000	38	32.2	53	28.5	91	41.8
$4,000 +	19	16.1	9	4.8	28	67.9
(Average)	($3956)		($1572)		(1852)	
Number of Dependents	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
None	55	46.6	123	66.1	178	30.9
One	13	11.0	21	11.3	34	38.2
Two-Four	38	32.2	36	19.4	74	51.4
Five or more	12	10.2	6	3.2	18	66.7
Debt Obligations	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	42	35.6	45	24.2	87	48.3
No	76	64.4	141	75.8	217	35.0
(Average)	($490)		($374)		(419)	
Reserve Funds	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	11	9.3	26	14.0	37	29.7
No	107	90.7	160	86.0	267	40.1
(Average)	N/A		N/A		N/A	
"Welfare" Family*	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	21	17.8	42	22.6	63	33.3
No	65	55.1	88	47.3	153	42.5
No Information	32	27.1	56	30.1	88	36.4
Spouse Employed	118	100.0	186	99.9	304	38.8
Yes	9	7.6	6	3.2	15	60.0
No	44	37.3	40	21.5	84	52.4
No Information	2	1.7	1	.5	3	66.7
No Spouse	63	53.4	139	74.7	202	31.2

*"Welfare Families" refers to those who were currently receiving or had recently received welfare assistance (payments).

Table 13: Financial Situation of Stayer and Leaver Populations (Continued)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Possession of Car	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	49	41.5	53	28.5	102	48.0
No	69	58.5	133	71.5	202	34.2
Hourly Wage Expectation	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Don't Know	7	5.9	11	5.9	18	38.9
$1.00-$2.00	54	45.8	121	65.0	175	30.9
$2.01-$2.50	24	20.3	29	15.6	53	45.3
$2.51-$3.00	14	11.9	12	6.5	26	53.8
$3.00 +	19	16.1	13	7.0	32	59.4

staying increased notably with levels of family income prior to relocation. The same kind of increase held true for number of dependents and wage aspirations.[17]

Those with indebtedness and no savings were more likely to stay than those without indebtedness and those with savings. Those with cars were more likely to be stayers than those without cars, and those not from welfare families were more likely to be stayers. Those with spouses, especially spouses who were working prior to relocation, were the most likely to stay. The likelihood of staying increased with wage expectations. With the exception of the dependents and car variables, the likelihood of staying increased with increasing levels of financial need.

Tables 14, 15, and 16 show that (1) within each of the two broad poverty categories, poor and not poor, the likelihood of staying increased as the number of disadvantaged characteristics of the relocatee decreased from three to none; (2) in contrast to the family income data in Table 13, when poverty status is determined by taking into account family income and family size, the relationship between income (in poverty terms) and likelihoods of staying becomes less dramatic---the poor had a 37 percent stay rate while the nonpoor had a 43 percent stay rate.[18] Further, when the three degrees of disadvantagedness were controlled, poverty status did not satisfactorily account for variations in stay rates. The number of disadvantaged characteristics was better than poverty status in explaining that variation.[19]

Employment History

Over 70 percent of the stayers had worked prior to relocation in primarily full-time jobs at wages of less than $2.00 per hour (Table 17). Prior job mobility was low: 74 percent of those with prior jobs had worked for only one employer. The major types of industry of prior jobs were agriculture, industry, and nondomestic services. They had been employed only 17-28 weeks in the 52 weeks prior to relocation. The stayers had longer time on their last job than did the leavers. Stayers had been more absence-prone on their prior job than had the leavers with the stayers absent from work more often due to illness and less often due to a lack of transportation. Stayers and leavers were about equally likely to have been fired from past job, while the stayers were more likely to have resigned and less likely to have been laid off. The stayers and leavers were

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[17]Excluding those 18 relocatees who indicated they did not know what to expect per hour.

[18]Omitting the 62 "Poor +3" relocatees (the severely disadvantaged ones), the stay rate for the "poor" is 46 percent, or slightly higher than that of the nonpoor.

[19]The disadvantaged in general were significantly less likely to be stayers than the nondisadvantaged. The corresponding "t value" for the difference in stay rates was -2.936 which is significant at the 5 percent probability level.

Table 14: Poverty and Combinations (degrees) of Disadvantaged among the Relocatee Stayer and Leaver Populations*

Category	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Poor +3	9	7.6	53	28.5	62	14.5
Poor +2	48	40.7	61	32.8	109	44.0
Poor +1	25	21.2	26	14.0	51	49.0
Poor Only	4	3.4	4	2.2	8	50.0
Not Poor +3	5	4.2	12	6.4	17	29.4
Not Poor +2	5	4.2	11	5.9	16	31.3
Not Poor +1	11	9.3	16	8.6	27	40.7
Not Poor Only	11	9.3	3	1.6	14	78.6
Total	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8

*Disadvantaged characteristics were (1) under 22 years of age, (2) black, and (3) school dropout.

Table 15: The Poor and the Disadvantaged among the Relocatee Stayer and Leaver Populations

Category	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Disadvantaged Poor	82	69.5	140	75.3	222	36.9
Nondisadvantaged Poor	4	3.4	4	2.2	8	50.0
Disadvantaged Nonpoor	21	17.8	39	21.0	60	35.0
Nondisadvantaged Nonpoor	11	9.3	3	1.6	14	78.6
Total	118	100.0	186	100.1	304	38.8

Table 16: Different Degrees of Disadvantagedness of Stayers and Leavers, Controlling for Poverty Status

Category	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Poor +3	9	7.6	53	28.5	62	14.5
Not Poor +3	5	4.2	12	6.4	17	29.4
Poor +2	48	40.7	61	32.8	109	44.0
Not Poor +2	5	4.2	11	5.9	16	31.3
Poor +1	25	21.2	26	14.0	51	49.0
Not Poor +1	11	9.3	16	8.6	27	40.7
Poor Only	4	3.4	4	2.2	8	50.0
Not Poor Only	11	9.3	3	1.6	14	78.6
Total	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8

Table 17: Employment History of Stayers and Leavers
(Screening information)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Labor Force Experience	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	85	72.0	126	67.7	211	40.3
No	33	28.0	60	32.3	93	35.5
Recent Job Wage Rate	117	100.0	186	100.0	303	38.6
No Prior Job	34	29.0	60	32.2	94	36.2
$1.00-$1.50	29	24.8	34	18.3	63	46.0
$1.51-$2.00	32	27.4	71	38.2	103	31.1
$2.00 +	22	18.8	21	11.3	43	51.2
Number Prior Employers	118	100.0	186	99.9	304	38.8
None	33	28.0	59	31.7	92	35.9
One	63	53.4	93	50.0	156	40.4
Two	18	15.2	25	13.4	43	41.9
Three or More	4	3.4	9	4.8	13	30.8
Industrial Classification of Prior Job	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
No Prior Job	33	28.0	60	32.3	93	35.5
Agriculture, Forestry etc.	21	17.8	28	15.0	49	42.8
Industry	24	20.3	46	24.7	70	34.3
Construction	5	4.2	13	7.0	18	27.8
Commerce	7	6.0	13	7.0	20	35.0
Services	22	18.6	22	11.8	44	50.0
Government	6	5.1	4	2.2	10	60.0
Type of Employment	117	100.0	186	100.0	303	38.6
No Prior Job	33	28.2	60	32.2	93	35.5
Full-Time	81	69.2	119	64.0	200	40.5
Part-Time	3	2.6	7	3.8	10	30.0
No. Days Missed From Work in Past 12 Mos.	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
No Prior Job	33	28.0	61	32.8	94	35.1
None	28	23.7	56	30.1	84	33.3
1-5 Days	34	28.8	50	26.9	84	40.5
5 + Days	23	19.5	19	10.2	42	54.8

Table 17: Employment History of Stayers and Leavers (Continued)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Reasons Absent From Work (MRJ)	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
No Prior Job	33	28.0	61	32.8	94	35.1
Personal Matters	6	5.1	12	6.4	18	33.3
Transportation	2	1.7	10	5.4	12	16.7
Illness	43	36.4	36	19.4	79	54.4
Other	6	5.1	11	5.9	17	35.3
Not Absent	28	23.7	56	30.1	84	33.3
Decision to Leave MRJ	117	100.0	186	100.0	303	38.6
No Prior Job	33	28.2	60	32.2	93	35.5
Fired	4	3.4	7	3.8	11	36.4
Resigned	56	47.9	74	39.8	130	43.1
Laid Off	24	20.5	45	24.2	69	34.8
Number of Weeks on Most Recent Job	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
No Prior Job	33	28.0	60	32.2	93	35.5
1-4	8	6.8	15	8.1	23	34.8
5-12	20	16.9	31	16.7	51	39.2
13-28	20	16.9	40	21.5	60	33.3
29-52	37	31.4	40	21.5	77	48.1
Weeks With Wage Income	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
No Wage Income	38	32.2	64	34.4	102	37.2
1-8	7	5.9	22	11.8	29	24.1
9-16	12	10.2	21	11.3	33	36.4
17-28	21	17.8	24	12.9	45	46.7
29-40	11	9.3	39	21.0	50	22.0
41-52	29	24.6	16	8.6	45	64.4
Weeks Employed	118	100.1	186	99.9	304	38.8
None	35	29.7	61	32.8	96	36.4
1-8	6	5.1	19	10.2	25	24.0
9-16	12	10.2	25	13.4	37	32.4
17-28	25	21.2	25	13.4	50	50.0
29-40	12	10.2	38	20.4	50	24.0
41-52	28	23.7	18	9.7	46	60.9
Type of Training	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Basic and Vo-Tech	20	17.0	20	10.8	40	50.0
Basic Ed. Only	17	14.4	61	32.8	78	21.8
Vo-Tech Only	19	16.1	35	18.8	54	35.2
Training, Not Classif.	7	5.9	5	2.7	12	58.3
No Training	55	46.6	65	34.9	120	45.8

differentiated on the basis of training prior to relocation: (1) the stayers were less likely to have had training; and (2) the stayers were less likely to have had solely basic education training, about equally likely to have had solely vo-tech training, and more likely to have had a combination of both types of training.[20]

Those with prior work experience were somewhat more likely to be stayers than those without prior work experience. Those whose per hour wages had been less than $1.50 or more than $2.00 per hour were the most likely to stay. Those in the $1.51 - $2.00 range were more likely to be leavers, quite possibly because most of the relocation jobs paid wages within the $1.60 - $2.00 per hour range---hardly significant increases over past wages.[21] Prior job mobility shows no relationship to likelihoods of staying. Those whose most recent job had been in the services (government and nongovernment) were those from recent agricultural pursuits in second place. Those primarily employed in industry and construction were the least likely to remain in the new area, probably because they had relocated after having been laid off.[22] Those whose most recent job was full-time were the most likely to stay while those with previous part-time jobs or no prior job at all were less likely to stay. For some inexplainable reason, the likelihood of staying increased with the number of days missed from work in the year prior to relocation. The reasons for being absent show some notable differences between stayers and leavers, although the reasons could not be linked to the number of absences for explanatory purposes: (1) those whose absences had been primarily due to illness(es) were by far the most likely to be stayers; (2) those absent due to transportation problems were the most likely to be leavers (their transportation problem apparently continued on the new job); and (3) no other reason for absences produced significant differences. The data on weeks worked, weeks with wage income, and weeks on most recent job resulted in a further set of inexplainable differences in likelihoods of staying. The training data suggested that the differences in the stay rates might reflect, among other things, differences in training programs, trainees, or relocation-training linkages: (1) those without training were much more likely to be stayers than those with training; (2) those with basic and vo-tech training combined were the most likely to be stayers than any of the other groups of relocatees, including the nontrainees; and (3) those with basic education only (primarily through CEP) were the least likely to be stayers.

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[20]The nontrainees were significantly more likely to be stayers than the trainees. The "t-value" for the difference was -2.027 which is significant at the 5 percent probability level.

[21]Explored in greater detail later in this chapter.

[22]Twenty-nine of the 88 relocatees previously employed in industry and construction were stayers (33%) while 24 of the 69 who had been laid off prior to relocation were stayers (35%). Allowing for faulty reporting of reasons for leaving the most recent job, the coincidence of stay rates needs further study.

Living Conditions

The stayers had housing that was fairly adequate though crowded. Prior to relocation most of them came from homes that were lacking many of the usual household necessities such as running water and indoor bathrooms as well as many conveniences considered necessary by many households (clothes washers, television, and air conditioners). However, the differences between the stayers and leavers did not generate any meaningful results for predicting likelihoods of staying (Table 18).

Relocatees from rural routes and small towns were somewhat better able to adjust to new towns than those from medium-sized towns (Table 19). This finding might have been anticipated by assuming that the impulse to relocate, which decreased by size of home town, would continue as a force impeding the return of the relocatee. However, the size of the new community seems to have had more impact upon relocatee adjustment than did the size of the home community, contrary to what had been expected. The stay rates increased sharply with increases in the size of the new community. When changes in sizes of communities, from home to new communities, are examined, it is notable that those who moved to communities about the same size as the communities they left were very unlikely to be stayers. Those who moved to either larger or smaller communities were more likely to be stayers. The difference in stay rates between relocatees to larger communities and relocatees to smaller communities is not statistically significant.

Table 20 shows relocatee stay rates when the absolute rather than relative sizes of the two sets of communities are compared. The percentages in the cells are the stay rates for relocatees with a given shift or change in community size. The numbers in parentheses are the relocatees upon which the stay rates were calculated. In absolute terms a change in community size resulted in higher stay rates primarily for those from small towns. Those from large towns were not significantly affected by change in size of community (42.8% stayers vs. 38.5% stayers). The best combination of home and new community sizes seems to be a move from a small home community to a large new community. This evidence suggests that a comparison of community sizes should be made routinely in the screening and job development processes of relocation.

Family Situation

The stayers were more likely than the leavers to (1) have been paying their own housing costs prior to relocation, (2) have had family responsibilities, (3) not have come from fatherless homes, (4) not have had friends or relatives in the home area, (5) have children of school age, and (6) have nonschool-age children cared for outside their home (Table 21). Stayers were more likely to have been either uncertain of the costs of relocation or aware the costs could be great, yet they also felt the benefits could be great, much more than the costs. Both groups of relocatees were more certain of the benefits than the costs of relocation. Regarding family problems as assessed by the relocatees

Table 18: Household Conveniences of Stayers and Leavers Prior to Relocation

(Screening Information)

Conveniences	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Electricity	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	117	99.2	186	100.0	303	38.6
No	1	0.8	0	0.0	1	100.0
Gas	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	113	95.8	177	95.2	290	39.0
No	5	4.2	9	4.8	14	35.7
Running Hot Water	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	100	84.7	163	87.6	263	38.0
No	18	15.3	23	12.4	41	43.9
Running Cold Water	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	104	88.1	166	89.2	270	38.5
No	14	11.9	20	10.8	34	41.2
Indoor Bathroom	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	102	86.4	159	85.5	261	39.1
No	16	13.6	27	14.5	43	37.2
Refrigerator	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	114	96.6	184	98.9	298	38.3
No	4	3.4	2	1.2	6	66.7
Clothes Washer	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	47	39.8	80	43.0	127	37.0
No	71	60.2	106	57.0	177	40.1
Clothes Dryer	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	16	13.6	24	12.9	40	40.0
No	102	86.4	162	87.1	264	38.6

Table 18: Household Conveniences (Continued)

Conveniences	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Air Conditioner	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	29	24.6	33	17.7	62	46.8
No	89	75.4	153	82.3	242	36.8
Dishwasher	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	5	4.2	5	2.7	10	50.0
No	113	95.8	181	97.3	294	38.4
TV (b/w)	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	96	81.2	160	86.0	256	37.5
No	22	18.6	26	14.0	48	45.8
TV (color)	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	13	11.0	20	10.8	33	39.4
No	105	89.0	166	89.2	271	38.7

Table 19: Living Conditions of Stayers and Leavers
(Screening information)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Condition of Housing	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Very Good	6	5.1	12	6.4	18	33.3
Good	40	33.9	56	30.1	96	41.7
Adequate	40	33.9	72	38.7	112	35.7
Poor	17	14.4	23	12.4	40	42.5
Very Poor	2	1.7	3	1.6	5	40.0
No Information	13	11.0	20	10.8	33	39.4
Number of Persons Per Bedroom	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
One	23	19.5	35	18.8	58	39.6
Two	49	41.5	67	36.0	116	42.2
Three	29	24.6	49	26.3	78	37.2
Three +	8	6.8	15	8.1	23	34.8
No Information	9	7.6	20	10.8	29	31.0
Size of Home Community	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Less than 5,000	62	52.5	94	50.5	156	39.7
5,000 - 9,999	15	12.7	28	15.1	43	34.9
10,000 - 24,999	27	22.9	53	28.5	80	33.8
24,999 +	14	11.9	11	5.9	25	56.0
Size of New Community	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Less than 5,000	9	7.6	37	19.9	46	19.6
5,000 - 9,999	17	14.4	39	21.0	56	30.4
10,000 - 24,999	16	13.6	25	13.4	41	39.0
24,999 - 49,999	25	21.2	25	13.4	50	50.0
49,999 +	51	43.2	60	32.3	111	45.9
New Community vs. Home Community	118	100.0	186	99.9	304	38.8
New-Smaller	18	15.3	17	9.1	35	51.4
New-Same Size	11	9.3	41	22.0	52	21.2
New-Larger	89	75.4	128	68.8	217	41.0

Table 20: Percent Stayers for Changes in Sizes of Communities*

	New Community Size		
Home Community Size	Small (1-10,000)	Large (10,000+)	Total
Small (1-10,000)	22.7% (88)	51.4% (111)	38.7% (199)
Large (10,000+)	42.8% (14)	38.5% (91)	39.0% (105)
Total	25.5% (102)	45.5% (202)	38.8% (304)

*All comparisons were significant at the 5 percent probability level except the following: 42.8% vs. 38.5% and 38.7% vs. 39.0%.

Table 21: Family Situation of Stayers and Leavers
(Screening Information)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Type of Housing	118	100.1	186	100.0	304	38.8
Rent Free	60	51.0	138	74.2	198	30.3
Renting	50	42.4	40	21.5	90	55.6
Buying	8	6.7	8	4.3	16	50.0
Type of Family	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8
Respondent Only	55	46.6	123	66.1	178	30.9
Respondent and Spouse	7	5.9	8	4.3	15	46.7
Respondent, Spouse and Children	45	38.1	36	19.4	81	55.6
Respondent and Children	10	8.5	17	9.1	27	37.0
Respondent and Others	1	0.8	2	1.1	3	33.3
Head of Household (FOB)	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Father	103	87.3	141	75.8	244	42.2
Mother	11	9.3	40	21.5	51	21.6
Guardian	4	3.4	5	2.7	9	44.4
Friends or Relatives In Supply Area	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	89	75.4	153	82.2	242	36.8
No	16	13.6	13	7.0	29	55.2
No Information	13	11.0	20	10.8	33	39.4
Family Happiness (FOB)	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8
Very Happy	11	9.3	18	9.7	29	37.9
Happy	55	46.6	89	47.8	144	38.2
Average	35	29.7	49	26.3	84	41.7
Unhappy	3	2.5	11	6.0	14	21.4
Very Unhappy	1	.8	0	0	1	100.0
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Nonschool Age Children	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	35	29.7	36	19.4	71	49.3
No	20	16.9	17	9.1	37	62.2
No Children	50	42.4	114	61.3	164	30.5
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6

Table 21: Family Situation of Stayers and Leavers (Continued)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
School Age Children	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	27	22.9	15	8.1	42	64.3
No	28	23.7	38	20.4	66	42.4
No Children	50	42.4	114	61.3	164	30.5
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Care of Nonschool Age Children	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8
Own Home	26	22.0	33	17.7	59	44.1
Relative's Home	3	2.5	2	1.1	5	60.0
Nonhome	6	5.1	1	.5	7	85.7
Not Applicable	70	59.3	130	69.9	200	35.0
No Information	13	11.0	20	10.8	33	39.4
Costs of Relocation to Family	118	100.0	185	100.1	303	38.9
Very Great	21	17.8	26	14.1	47	44.7
Great	32	27.1	49	26.5	81	39.5
Average	39	33.1	77	41.6	116	33.6
Small	5	4.2	9	4.9	14	35.7
Very Small	2	1.7	5	2.7	7	28.6
Don't Know	19	16.1	19	10.3	38	50.0
Benefits of Relocation To Family	117	100.0	185	100.1	302	38.7
Very Great	58	49.6	73	39.5	131	44.3
Great	46	39.3	83	44.9	129	35.6
Average	9	7.7	26	14.1	35	25.7
Small	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Very Small	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Don't Know	4	3.4	3	1.6	7	57.1

themselves, the stayers were more likely to have lacked parental affection, food/clothing, and "enough luxuries"; the stayers were less likely to have grown up in broken homes and to have known only one parent (Table 22).

The relocatees most likely to be stayers were (1) those paying their own housing costs prior to relocation,[23] (2) married with spouses and/or children,[24] (3) without friends and relatives in the home area, (4) with children of school age, (5) those who had to care for their nonschool age children outside the home, and (6) those who considered the costs and the benefits of relocation to be great. Of sociological note were those relocatees from broken homes who were very unlikely to be stayers. The extent of family happiness was unrelated to likelihoods of staying. In six of the ten items regarding "family problems" those who said there was a given problem in their home were likely to be stayers although some of the differences were not significant. Of the remaining four, two had significant differences in the reverse direction: (1) "grew up in broken homes" and (2) "knew only one parent". While those who gave other than "family obligations" as obstacles to their relocation were unlikely to relocate,[25] they were nevertheless more likely to be stayers than those who stated "family obligations" as obstacles to their relocation (Table 23).

As pointed out in a previous report, those relocatees who went home often in the early weeks in the new area were very likely to stay home during one of those visits.[26] They were not able to sever strong ties with their home communities and/or adjust very rapidly to their new community. Table 24 suggests corollary findings. Those who indicated no home visits were primarily those who worked one week or less on their new job, went home over the weekend, but did not return. Their one and only home visit was a permanent one.

The remainder of this chapter examines selected aspects of the impact of relocation upon the relocatees and their families with the intention of explaining or at least accounting for some of the differences in stay rates by different groups of relocatees from different parts of the three-state area covered by the Project during 1971-1973. Benefits and costs to the relocatees will be stressed along with some suggestions regarding how things might have been different if certain kinds of relocatees had been stayers rather than leavers.

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[23]Most of those not paying housing costs were single relocatees.

[24]Those married relocatees without spouses were barely more likely to be stayers than the singles.

[25]Chapter 5, Table 11.

[26]Relocating the Unemployed..., loc. cit.

Table 22: Family Problems of Stayers and Leavers
(Screening information)

Family Problems	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Lack of Parental Affection	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	11	9.3	13	7.0	24	45.8
No	94	79.7	154	82.8	248	37.9
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Not Enough Food/ Clothing	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	30	25.4	34	18.3	64	46.9
No	75	63.6	133	71.5	208	36.1
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Poor Housing	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	32	27.1	53	28.5	85	37.7
No	73	61.9	114	61.3	187	39.0
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Not Enough Luxuries	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	33	28.0	44	23.7	77	42.9
No	72	61.0	123	66.1	195	36.9
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Hostility in Home	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	5	4.2	6	3.2	11	45.5
No	100	84.7	161	86.6	261	38.3
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Not Enough Friends	118	99.9	186	100.1	304	38.8
Yes	3	2.5	2	1.2	5	60.0
No	102	86.4	165	88.7	267	38.2
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Problems in School	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	13	11.0	23	12.4	36	36.1
No	92	78.0	144	77.4	236	39.0
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.2	32	40.6
Personal Handicaps	118	99.9	184	100.0	302	39.1
Yes	5	4.2	7	3.8	12	41.7
No	100	84.7	158	85.9	258	38.8
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.3	32	40.6

Table 22: Family Problems (Continued)

Family Problems	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Grew Up In Broken Home	118	100.0	185	100.0	303	38.9
Yes	7	5.9	25	13.5	32	21.9
No	98	83.1	141	76.2	239	41.0
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.3	32	40.6
Knew Only One Parent	118	100.0	185	100.0	303	38.9
Yes	7	5.9	18	9.7	25	28.0
No	98	83.1	148	80.0	246	39.8
No Information	13	11.0	19	10.3	32	40.6

Table 23: Factors That Would Interfere With Moving
(Screening information)

Factors	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Family Obligation	110	93.2	179	96.8	289	38.1
Other Family	1	0.8	1	0.5	2	50.0
Non-Family	7	6.0	5	2.7	12	58.3
Total	118	100.0	185	100.0	303	38.9

Table 24: Frequency of Home Visits by Stayers and Leavers
(Follow-up information)

Frequency	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Very Often	26	22.0	26	23.4	52	50.0
Occasionally	84	71.2	36	32.4	120	70.0
None	8	6.8	49	44.1	57	14.0
Total	118	100.0	111	99.9	229	51.5

The Severely Disadvantaged Poor Relocatees

The stay rates in Tables 14, 15, and 16 pinpoint a problem group of relocatees. They are those relocatees who are poor in addition to having all three of the disadvantaged characteristics (school dropouts, black, and under 22 years old). Their stay rate is less than one-half of the overall average. Omitting this group, the overall stay rate increases from 39 percent to almost 45 percent. The impact of this group upon the stay rates of this cohort of relocatees warrants exploration for the conditions or factors that may have led to such a poor showing. Table 25 compares some of the characteristics of the severely disadvantaged poor relocatees with the other relocatees in addition to comparing their old and new wages. The severely disadvantaged, poor relocatees, or the "Poor +3" relocatees, are similar to the others in terms of sex, prior labor force experience, and manpower training. The similarities end there. The "Poor +3" are much more likely to (1) be single, (2) not have a car, (3) have worked at lower prerelocation wages, and (4) have started their jobs at much lower wages than the other relocatees. They were twice as likely as the other relocatees to have been placed in dead-end, unskilled, low-paying miscellaneous jobs (Table 26). They were less likely to have been relocated to the better paying structural trade and white collar jobs. Many of the better paying jobs were not available to this group because (1) one-fourth of them were in Arkansas and could not be relocated to the high-paying welder jobs in Vicksburg and Pascagoula, Mississippi; (2) one-third preferred to relocate from the Mississippi Delta to Memphis rather than to other areas such as Jackson/Vicksburg and the Gulf Coast where wages were higher; (3) a quarter moved to jobs in the Tupelo/Booneville (N. E. Mississippi) area where, along with Memphis, relocatee wages historically have been lower than in Jackson/Vicksburg and the Gulf Coast, and where black relocatees received significantly lower starting wages than white relocatees. In essence, wage opportunities were limited to many of these relocatees, perhaps the most needy of the entire cohort, either by (1) program design, (2) choice of area, or (3) race discrimination.[27]

Two other considerations should not be overlooked: (1) variations in job development activities in the various demand areas, and (2) the distances between the home communities and the prospective job locations. Table 27 shows sharp differences in the types of jobs in which relocatees in various demand areas were placed. Arkansas and Memphis accounted for almost three-fourths of the nonskilled, low-paying jobs, while Jackson/Vicksburg and the Gulf Coast accounted for half of the high-paying structural trades jobs (mostly welders). Over half of the benchwork jobs were filled by relocatees to N. E. Mississippi. Jackson/Vicksburg and the Gulf Coast exhibited very little diversity in relocatee jobs while N. E. Mississippi and Arkansas showed the most diversity. Memphis was moderately diversified. The availability of jobs in Arkansas was affected by their location: industrialized Little Rock and surrounding Pulaski County have a broader base of

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[27]The average starting wages for black relocatees in general were significantly lower than for white relocatees, particularly in N. E. Mississippi.

Table 25: Comparison of the Severely Disadvantaged, Poor Relocatees and the Other Relocatees

Characteristics	Poor +3		Others	
Sex	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
Male	54	88.5	205	84.4
Female	7	11.5	38	15.6
Marital Status	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
Married	9	14.8	87	35.8
Not Married	52	85.2	156	64.2
Car	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
Yes	10	16.4	92	37.9
No	51	83.6	151	62.1
Manpower Training	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
Yes	38	62.3	146	60.1
No	23	37.7	97	39.9
Labor Force Experience	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
Yes	45	73.8	166	68.3
No	16	26.2	77	31.7
Old Wage	45	100.1%	164	100.0%
.01 - 1.50	16	35.6	47	28.6
1.51 - 2.00	26	57.8	77	47.0
2.00 +	3	7	40	24.4
New Wage	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
1.60 - 2.00	50	82.0	117	48.1
2.01 - 2.50	8	13.1	48	19.8
2.50 +	3	4.9	78	32.1
Stayers	61	100.0%	243	100.0%
Yes	10	16.4	108	44.4
No	51	83.6	135	55.6

Table 26: DOT Codes of New Jobs of Severely Disadvantaged, Poor Relocatees and Other Relocatees

	Poor +3		Others		Total	
Dot Codes	N	%	N	%	N	%
000-100	-	-	8	3.3	8	2.6
200	-	-	15	6.2	15	5.0
300	1	1.6	10	4.1	11	3.6
500	10	16.4	39	16.1	49	16.2
600	2	3.3	14	5.8	16	5.3
700	9	14.8	20	8.3	29	9.6
800	15	24.6	87	36.0	102	33.7
900	24	39.3	49	20.2	73	24.1
Total	61	100.0	242	100.0	303	100.1

Table 27: Distribution of Relocation Jobs by Demand Areas

Occupational Categories	Demand Areas					
	Arkansas	Jackson/ Vicksburg	N.E. Miss.	Memphis	Coast	Total
Professional, technical, and managerial	2	1	3	-	2	8
Clerical and sales	5	2	5	2	-	14
Service	9	-	1	-	1	11
Processing	12	1	11	25	-	49
Machine	1	-	7	9	-	17
Benchwork	5	-	17	4	3	29
Structural	4	12	16	19	51	102
Miscellaneous	46	4	1	22	-	73
Total	84	20	61	81	57	303

occupations while rural Arkansas and primarily the delta region in the southeast corner of the state are just beginning to show some major industrial growth.

The distances involved are important. Memphis has traditionally been either a destination or a way-point for the migration of blacks from the Mississippi Delta. Furthermore, it is within the reach of the "metropolitan dominance" of Memphis. McGehee, Arkansas is over 100 miles from Little Rock, and Clarksdale, Mississippi is almost 250 miles from the Mississippi Gulf Coast. Better wages in the latter two demand areas apparently did not sufficiently compensate for the long distances to be moved. The majority of the relocatees to the Gulf Coast received technical training in skills required by Ingalls Shipyards and were not able to find similar jobs within shorter distances from home.[28]

Relocatees Who Left Their Relocation Job but Remained in the New Area

Part of the analysis omitted from prior reports was that related to explaining why some relocatees left their relocation jobs within six months but remained in the new area rather than return home. During the March 1970 - November 1971 period thirty percent of the relocatee stayers left their relocation jobs without returning home. Within six months after being relocated, this latter group of "stayers" had somewhat better luck at finding jobs on their own than those who returned home (68% employed vs. 59% employed respectively at the follow-up). In the most recent period of December 1971 - February 1973, another 30 percent of the recent group of stayers were not on their original jobs, yet ninety-seven percent of them were employed at the follow-up while only sixty-one percent of the area leavers were employed at the same follow-up. The percentage of stayers who look for other jobs in the new area seems consistent at about 30 percent with an average follow-up employment rate of eighty percent; the follow-up employment rate of the area leavers averages about 60 percent.

Additional analysis not included in the same report tentatively showed that the work experience of those who left their relocation jobs did not significantly affect decisions to remain in the area and look for other work or return home. The work experiences of those who remained in the area, even though unemployed, were more similar to those who left the area than those who remained in the area and on the original relocation job. Table 28 illustrates some of those comparative work experiences from the 1970-1971 data.

At that time sociodemographic data were not available in order to ascertain some other characteristics of this second group of demand area stayers. A special follow-up interview proved unproductive because of the

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[28]It should be noted that Ingalls aggressively recruited at the various skills training centers throughout Mississippi as well as adjacent states and has offered the highest average wages of all the 550+ employers of relocatees during the history of the Project.

Table 28: Comparison of Two Groups of Demand Area Stayers with the Demand Area Leavers (An "X" indicates the group to which the group of Demand Area stayers/Job Leavers is similar)
(1970-1971 Data)

Item	Left Job (1)	Left Area (2)	Original Job (3)
1. Received a promotion	x	x	
2. Worked overtime	x		x
3. No. hours worked overtime	x		x
4. Received time-and-a-half overtime pay	x	x	
5. Worked regular day shift	x	x	x
6. Worked shift preferred	x	x	x
7. Labor union member	x	x	
8. Used prior job-related training	x	x	x
9. Used personal auto to get to work	x	x	
10. Absent from work	x	x	x
11. Previous work experience	x	x	x
12. Liked job very much	x	x	
13. Like job somewhat	x	x	
14. Disliked job	x	x	
15. Accepted job because only job available	x	x	
16. Accepted job because pay good	x	x	x
17. Accepted job to use training	x	x	
18. Beginning relocation wages	x	x	

Sum of Similarities: (1) and (3) only = 2
(1) and (2) only = 10
(1), (2), and (3) only = 6

nonrandom nature of the final sample. This time around (1971-1973) allowances were made for identification of this group in the data coding process. Consequently, 36 such persons were identified. Table 29 outlines some selected characteristics of those "job changers" as they will be called. There are some obvious differences between this group and the other group of stayers. It had been anticipated that the job changer group would be somewhat between the other two groups, as it were, in its defining characteristics. That anticipation was supported to some extent: the job changers were intermediate in percent married, with dependents, age, education, and starting relocation wage. On the other hand, they were more comparable to the area leavers than the job stayers with regard to (1) car possession and (2) hourly wage expectations. They were much more likely to be female than were the other two groups of relocatees. Race did not seem to be an important factor. Neither did the extent of prior labor force experience. The job changers had a somewhat higher likelihood of having earned less than $1.50 per hour on jobs prior to relocation. The prior wage history of the job changers is more similar to that of the job stayers than that of the area leavers.

Not only were those who left the new area less likely to find subsequent employment than were those who remained in the new area, but they were also less likely to find other new jobs that paid as well or better than their old relocation job (Table 30). Thus, remaining in the new area benefited the relocatee, more if he stayed on the original job and somewhat less if he left that job but remained in the area. Those who benefited the least were those who returned home and were unemployed at the time of the follow-up interview. The demand areas selected by the Project provided better wage earning opportunities than the areas used as sources of relocatees.

The apparent reasons for leaving the relocation jobs seemed to have been about the same for both groups of job leavers. What seemed to differentiate the area leavers from the area stayers in this group were those personal characteristics that indicate a return move home would be costly financially: marital status, children, and so on. Having moved their families and having their relocation expenses paid by the Project, many found that the expenses of moving again would be prohibitive; moving costs for a single individual without dependents would be nominal. Several of the individuals in this group changed jobs almost immediately after arriving to the new area; the subsequent jobs paid considerably more. It is possible that relocation to a job was simply a vehicle to migrate with financial assistance. While job opportunities were obviously better in the new area, those who left the area were much more likely to have disliked both their new jobs and their new area, while those who remained but at different jobs focussed their dissatisfaction upon their relocation jobs and not so much so on the new area.

The job changers had wage aspirations between those of the job stayers and area leavers. Their relocation wages were similarly between those of the other two groups. The job stayers came much closer than the other groups in reaching their aspired wage levels. The area leavers were the least likely

Table 29: Selected Characteristics of Three Groups of Relocatees (Screening Information)

Characteristics	Job Stayers		Job Changers		Area Leavers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Sex	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
Male	72	87.8	25	69.4	162	87.1
Female	10	12.2	11	30.6	24	12.9
Race	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
White	18	22.0	9	25.0	38	20.4
Black	64	78.0	27	75.0	148	79.6
Marital Status	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
Married	40	48.8	12	33.3	44	23.7
Not Married	42	51.2	24	66.7	142	76.3
Car	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
Yes	40	48.8	9	25.0	53	28.5
No	42	51.2	27	75.0	133	71.5
Dependents	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
Yes	48	58.5	15	41.7	63	33.9
No	34	41.5	21	58.3	123	66.1
Age	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
18-20 years	27	32.9	14	38.9	95	51.1
21-30 years	40	48.8	19	52.8	73	39.2
30 + years	15	18.3	3	8.3	18	9.7
Education	82	100.0	36	100.0	184	100.0
0-8 years	11	13.4	5	13.9	29	15.8
9-11 years	21	25.6	10	27.8	77	41.8
12 or more	50	61.0	21	58.3	78	42.4
Labor Force Experience	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
Prior Job	59	72.0	26	72.2	126	67.7
No Prior Job	23	28.0	10	27.8	60	32.3
Old Job Wage	57	100.0	26	100.0	126	100.0
$1.50 or less	19	33.3	10	38.5	34	27.0
$1.51 - $2.00	23	40.4	9	34.6	71	56.3
$2.00 +	15	26.3	7	26.9	21	16.7

Table 29: Selected Characteristics (Continued)

Characteristics	Job Stayers		Job Changers		Area Leavers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Hourly Wage Expectation	82	100.0	36	100.0	186	100.0
$1.50-$2.00	31	37.8	23	63.9	121	65.1
$2.01-$2.50	16	19.5	8	22.2	29	15.6
$2.51-$3.00	11	13.4	3	8.3	12	6.4
$3.00 +	18	22.0	1	2.8	13	7.0
Don't Know	6	7.3	1	2.8	11	5.9
Relocation Job Wage	82	100.0	36	100.0	185	100.0
$1.60-$2.00	26	31.7	20	55.5	121	65.4
$2.01-$2.50	18	22.0	12	33.3	27	14.6
$2.51-$3.00	18	22.0	2	5.6	25	13.5
$3.00 +	20	24.3	2	5.6	12	6.5

Table 30: Starting Wages on the New Job Immediately After Leaving the Relocation Job: Those Who Were Employed in the New Area or Back Home

New Wage vs. Relocation Wage	Area Stayers		Area Leavers		Total	
	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%
More	20	57.1	30	44.1	50	48.5
Same	2	5.7	6	8.8	8	7.8
Less	13	37.1	32	47.1	45	43.7
Total	35	99.9	68	100.0	103	100.0

Table 31: Relocation Wages vs. Aspiration Wages of Three Groups of Relocatees

Relocation Wages vs. Aspiration Wages	Job Stayers		Job Leavers		Area Leavers		Total	
	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	N	%
More	31	40.0	10	32.2	61	34.9	102	35.9
Same	23	28.9	11	35.5	34	19.4	68	23.9
Less	24	31.1	10	32.2	80	45.7	114	40.1
Total*	78	100.0	31	99.9	175	100.0	284	99.9

*Do not total to 82, 36, and 186 respectively because of missing information regarding aspiration wages.

to achieve their wage aspirations. Table 31 shows how the relocation wages compared with the aspired wages of these three groups of relocatees. It is readily apparent that, if the new wage were close to or at least no less than aspired, the relocatee would be likely to stay in the new area, though not necessarily on the relocation job. Of course, new wages significantly or substantially higher than expected could induce the relocatees to remain in the area and on the original job. Low wages and especially lower than expected were not conducive to staying on the original job or in the original area.

Usually, "relocatee stayers" referred to those who were in the new area at a specified time after being hired. More often than not, those who were in the new area at the time of the follow-up were assumed to be employed and were considered "successful" relocatees. Yet, the present analysis showed that this group of relocatees included a subgroup of individuals who were similar to the area leavers in many ways. Should they have been considered relocation successes or failures? A redefinition of criteria seems in order.

Community Satisfaction

Prior to relocation a large portion of the relocatees were dissatisfied with their home communities for one reason or another (Table 32). The items that indicated the most reaction were (1) pay scale adequacy, (2) community facilities adequacy, and (3) existence of friends. On the basis of applicant rankings of those characteristics that best described their home communities, the above three items were the most salient or important. Surprisingly enough, the size of town and cost of living items were not important to three-fifths of the relocatees. Apart from the pay scale and community facilities variables, the home communities were assessed fairly positively when viewed from a variable-to-variable basis. Their global satisfaction with their home communities was somewhat less than enthusiastic (Table 33); however, likelihoods of returning home were unrelated to their views of their home community.

After relocation, changes in the overall satisfaction toward their community of residence were quite marked (Table 34). The stayers were much more satisfied with their new community, that of the relocation job, than they had been with their home community. On the other hand, the leavers had reassessed and found more attractive their home community upon return (Table 35). The stayers preferred their new community in spite of (1) an absence of relatives and friends and (2) a higher cost of living. They liked their new community primarily because of (1) better job and wage opportunities, (2) better community facilities, and (3) size of the community. The leavers liked their home towns much better after having been away: (1) the size of the town was more attractive, (2) the local pay scale seemed to have improved, and (3) the general level of complaints decreased. After having been away from home for awhile, the leavers, most of whom were young, single, and living at home prior to relocating, were unable or unwilling to adjust to new surroundings.

Table 32: Supply Community Orientation of the Stayers and Leavers (Screening Information)

Characteristics	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Lots of Friends	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	65	55.1	112	60.2	177	36.7
No	10	8.5	10	5.4	20	50.0
Indifferent	43	36.4	64	34.4	107	40.2
Peaceful & Orderly	118	100.0	186	99.9	304	38.8
Yes	38	32.2	65	34.9	103	36.9
No	11	9.3	6	3.2	17	64.7
Indifferent	69	58.5	115	61.8	184	37.5
Family and Relatives Here	118	100.1	186	100.1	304	38.8
Yes	56	47.5	105	56.5	161	34.8
No	10	8.5	15	8.1	25	40.0
Indifferent	52	44.1	66	35.5	118	41.1
People are Nice	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	47	39.8	69	37.1	116	40.5
No	7	6.0	14	7.5	21	33.3
Indifferent	64	54.2	103	55.4	167	38.3
Size of Town Okay	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	32	27.1	38	20.4	70	45.7
No	16	13.6	36	19.4	52	30.8
Indifferent	70	59.3	112	60.2	182	38.5
Cost of Living Is Low	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	31	26.3	56	30.1	87	35.6
No	15	12.7	23	12.4	38	39.5
Indifferent	72	61.0	107	57.5	179	40.2
Adequate Community Facilities	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	34	28.8	38	20.4	72	47.2
No	39	33.1	35	18.8	74	52.7
Indifferent	45	38.1	113	60.8	158	28.5
Adequate Pay Scale	118	100.0	186	100.0	304	38.8
Yes	6	5.1	7	3.8	13	46.2
No	66	55.9	78	41.9	144	45.8
Indifferent	46	39.0	101	54.3	147	31.3

Table 33: Satisfaction with Supply Community of Stayers and Leavers (Screening information)

Satisfaction	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Very Satisfied	11	10.5	6	3.6	17	64.7
Satisfied	60	57.1	93	56.0	153	39.2
Dissatisfied	27	25.7	59	35.5	86	31.4
Very Dissatisfied	3	2.9	2	1.2	5	60.0
Undecided	4	3.8	6	3.6	10	40.0
Total	105	100.0	166	99.9	271	38.7

Table 34: General Satisfaction with Community of Present Residence (Screening and Follow-up information)

Satisfaction	Stayers				Leavers			
	Before		After		Before		After	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	105	100.0	118	100.0	101	100.1	111	100.0
Very Satisfied	11	10.5	23	19.5	2	2.0	11	9.9
Satisfied	60	57.1	91	71.1	59	58.4	87	78.4
Dissatisfied	27	25.7	4	3.4	33	32.7	11	9.9
Very Dissatisfied	3	2.9	0	0	2	2.0	0	0
Undecided	4	3.8	0	0	5	5.0	2	1.8

Table 35: Present Community Orientation of the Stayers and Leavers (Screening and Follow-up information)

Characteristics	Stayers				Leavers			
	Before		After		Before		After	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Lots of Friends	105	100.0	118	100.0	102	100.0	111	100.0
Yes	65	61.9	36	30.5	71	69.6	89	80.2
No	10	9.5	25	21.2	7	6.9	3	2.7
Indifferent	30	28.6	57	48.3	24	23.5	19	17.1
Peaceful & Orderly	105	100.0	118	100.0	102	99.9	111	100.0
Yes	38	36.2	46	39.0	64	62.7	28	25.2
No	11	10.5	7	5.9	4	3.9	3	2.7
Indifferent	56	53.3	65	55.1	34	33.3	80	72.1
Friends and Relatives Here	105	99.9	118	99.9	102	99.9	111	100.0
Yes	56	53.3	13	11.0	34	33.3	73	65.8
No	10	9.5	5	4.2	9	8.8	0	0
Indifferent	39	37.1	100	84.7	59	57.8	38	34.2
People Are Nice	105	100.1	118	100.0	102	100.0	111	100.0
Yes	47	44.8	51	43.2	40	39.2	41	36.9
No	7	6.7	12	10.2	7	6.9	8	7.2
Indifferent	51	48.6	55	46.6	55	53.9	62	55.9
Size of Town Okay	105	100.0	118	100.0	102	99.9	111	100.0
Yes	32	30.5	67	56.8	23	22.5	35	31.5
No	16	15.2	4	3.4	20	19.6	3	2.7
Indifferent	57	54.3	47	39.8	59	57.8	73	65.8
Cost of Living Is Low	105	100.0	118	100.0	102	100.1	111	100.0
Yes	31	29.5	15	12.7	33	32.4	39	35.1
No	15	14.3	103	87.3	16	15.7	72	64.9
Indifferent	59	56.2			53	52.0		
Adequate Community Facilities	105	100.0	118	100.0	102	100.1	111	100.0
Yes	34	32.4	56	47.5	22	21.6	11	9.9
No	39	37.1	1	0.8	22	21.6	10	9.0
Indifferent	32	30.5	61	51.7	58	56.9	90	81.1
Adequate Pay Scale	105	100.0	118	100.1	102	100.0	111	100.0
Yes	6	5.7	47	39.8	5	4.9	12	10.8
No	66	62.9	40	34.0	49	48.0	12	10.8
Indifferent	33	31.4	31	26.3	48	47.1	87	78.4

Because the community items were not asked about the demand area community of the leavers, there is no way to determine the impact of these items in their decision to leave. The stayers saw considerable community improvement after the move. It is quite possible, though not tested, that the leavers were also favorably impressed by their new communities but other factors weighed heavily in their decision to return home.

Standard of Living

Tests of the significance of difference between proportions showed that the relocatees changed their standard of living primarily through moving to improved, more modern housing (Table 36). The improvements in housing for the leavers were due primarily to those who were not living at their original supply area address but were either renting apartments or buying a home or mobile home. Increases in major appliance ownership were not significant. In fact, ownership of clothes washers decreased significantly for the stayers.

Supply and Demand Counties and Relocation Stability

Up until now the primary analytical focus has been the characteristics of the individual relocatees. Here the focus is shifted to the environment or the county of residence of the relocatees. Two kinds of counties are of concern: (1) 91 counties in which relocatees were recruited from January, 1970 through February, 1973 and (2) 64 counties to which relocatees moved to new jobs during the same time span. The first group of counties were the "supply counties" or sources of relocatee labor supply; the second group of counties were the "demand counties" or sources of jobs for relocatees. The 1970-1973 time period was chosen because data collection and collation on relocatees, their supply and demand counties, and their stay rates prior to January, 1970 would have been too prohibitive timewise to have been productive for present purposes. During 1968 and 1969 the deployment of Project field staff was not sufficiently different to cause one to suspect that recruitment and job development patterns were drastically different from the latter period.[29] Prior to 1968 almost all of the relocatees were recruited in central and southern Mississippi and sent to the Mississippi Gulf Coast.

The 91 supply counties are represented by 26 counties in Table 37. These 26 counties served as recruitment bases for 558, or 67.4 percent, of the relocatees recruited during 1970-1973, while accounting for only 28.6 percent of the total number of supply counties. The 64 demand counties are represented by the 13 counties in Table 38. These 13 counties served as sources of jobs for 766, or 92.5 percent, of the 828 relocatees placed during the same time period, while accounting for only 20.3 percent of the

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[29]In the last three months of 1969, about 30 relocatees were moved in Arkansas, primarily to Little Rock. The Arkansas mobility unit did not get into full operation until 1970.

Table 36: Level of Living of Stayers and Leavers (Before and After Relocation)

Convenience	Stayers		Leavers	
	Before	After	Before	After
	(118)	(118)	(111)	(111)
Electricity	117	118	111	111
Gas	113	114	105	107
Running Hot Water	100	118	96	104
Running Cold Water	104	118	99	108
Indoor Bath	102	118	93	101
Refrigerator	114	112	111	109
Clothes Washer	47	27	49	44
Clothes Dryer	16	14	15	9
Air Conditioner	29	36	22	18
Dishwasher	5	5	2	3
TV (B/W)	96	95	99	100
TV (Color)	13	15	11	7

Table 37: Selected Characteristics of the Major Supply Counties: 1970-1973*

County	% Urban	% Poor Families	Population Change: 1960-70	Ave. Employment Change: 1966-71	% Nonwhite	% Commuters	% Manufacturing Employment	% Migrants - 5 yrs. & over	Labor force participation	% Employed 26 Weeks or less	Average weekly Wage ($)	% High School Graduates	% Housing lacking plumbing	% Unemployed	% Stayers 1970-1973
Adams (MS)	52	28	- 1	+ 2	48	5	24	10	53	15	132	43	23	6	33
Alcorn (MS)	42	22	+ 8	+ 4	12	7	42	11	54	18	98	36	22	7	56
Bolivar (MS)	42	44	- 9	+13	62	6	18	12	50	32	102	31	39	9	38
Coahoma (MS)	54	42	-12	+.9	64	4	12	12	48	30	109	31	41	8	31
Forrest (MS)	78	22	+10	+ 2	24	8	17	22	53	24	104	53	12	3	82
Hinds (MS)	84	19	+15	+ 4	39	5	14	16	59	17	120	59	6	3	57
Jones (MS)	51	23	- 5	-.1	24	9	24	12	50	18	114	42	14	3	70
Lee (MS)	44	19	+14	+ 8	20	6	34	17	61	14	102	44	17	2	42
Lowndes (MS)	60	23	+ 7	+ 2	32	4	26	20	60	20	100	48	21	4	56
Madison (MS)	35	40	-10	+.9	62	27	30	12	50	20	96	34	40	4	40
Marshall (MS)	24	44	- 2	+10	62	27	28	12	47	26	90	28	47	6	70
Monroe (MS)	40	24	+.3	+ 2	30	16	46	10	58	16	90	34	24	4	18
Panola (MS)	14	38	- 7	+ 2	51	14	28	10	52	24	87	30	40	7	64
Prentiss (MS)	29	24	+12	+.2	12	18	44	11	57	16	82	32	24	5	38
Quitman (MS)	16	50	-24	+ 2	58	19	22	13	46	34	99	24	48	8	67
Tishomingo (MS)	0	24	+ 8	+.6	4	26	45	12	51	20	80	32	26	10	42
Wayne (MS)	26	36	+ 2	+10	32	14	31	8	48	20	89	31	33	4	54
Arkansas (AR)	61	23	0	+ 1	22	3	20	14	54	20	103	37	15	4	58
Ashley (AR)	48	25	+ 3	+ 2	20	4	40	12	51	21	126	40	21	4	14
Chicot (AR)	62	44	- 4	+.1	54	10	15	12	46	26	78	28	37	8	30
Desha (AR)	50	34	-10	+ 5	44	8	17	12	51	25	90	32	31	6	20
Drew (AR)	34	26	-.4	+13	30	12	38	22	52	26	91	34	32	4	44
Lonoke (AR)	35	26	+ 7	+11	18	31	23	20	52	20	92	36	19	4	56
Phillips (AR)	54	38	- 9	- 1	54	4	26	9	47	27	102	27	34	11	45
St. Francis (AR)	40	34	- 8	+ 7	48	7	26	10	52	23	97	30	35	12	50

*Sources: 1970 Census of Population; 1970 Census of Housing; County Business Patterns: 1966; County Business Patterns: 1971.

Table 38: Selected Characteristics of the Major Demand Counties: 1970-1973*

County	% Urban	% Poor Families	Population Change: 1960-70	Ave. Employment Change: 1966-71	% Nonwhite	% Commuters	% Manufacturing Employment	% Migrants - 5 yrs. & over	Labor force participation	% Employed 26 Weeks or less	Average weekly Wage ($)	% High School Graduates	% Housing lacking plumbing	% Unemployed	% Stayers 1970 - 1973
Bradley(AR)	50	30	- 9	+ 2	32	13	36	7	46	19	94	32	28	4	35
Desha(AR)	50	34	-10	+ 5	44	8	17	12	51	25	90	32	31	6	11
Pulaski(AR)	85	14	+18	+ 4	21	3	18	19	60	16	118	58	5	3	47
Alcorn(MS)	42	22	+ 8	+ 4	12	7	42	11	54	18	98	36	22	7	57
Forrest(MS)	78	22	+10	+ 2	25	8	17	23	53	25	104	53	12	3	62
Harrison(MS)	83	17	+13	+ 5	18	5	12	30	60	20	103	55	6	4	86
Hinds(MS)	84	19	+15	+ 4	39	5	14	16	59	17	120	59	7	3	68
Jackson(MS)	72	11	+58	+ 7	16	13	41	25	59	18	147	55	6	5	58
Lee(MS)	44	19	+14	+ 8	21	6	34	17	61	14	102	45	17	2	39
Prentiss(MS)	29	25	+12	+ .2	12	19	44	11	57	16	81	33	24	5	48
Tippah(MS)	22	32	+ 5	+ 3	16	14	37	11	54	16	82	36	32	3	54
Warren(MS)	57	22	+ 7	- .3	41	3	21	16	56	18	116	47	21	4	47
Shelby(TN)	94	16	+15	+ 4	37	11	20	16	60	18	124	50	4	5	54

*Sources: 1970 Census of Population; 1970 Census of Housing; County Business Patterns: 1966; County Business Patterns: 1971.

total number of demand counties. These 26 supply and 13 demand counties were selected for analysis because at least nine relocatees had been either recruited in that county or had been relocated (moved) to that county. After nine relocatees, the number of relocatees either from or to a given county drops off rapidly. The numbers of relocatees involved here should not be confused with the total number of relocatees moved by the Project during the almost seven years of operational work.

The major concern here was to determine if there were any significant relationships between the stay rates of the relocatees from each supply county and selected characteristics of each supply county and similarly for the demand county side of the relocation flow. Were certain kinds of counties more likely to produce, as it were, stayers while others were more likely to produce leavers? Could typologies of supply and demand counties be developed in order to identify the "problem counties" where special attention would be required for relocation to be effective. Such typologies, if transferrable to other geographic areas, would be useful in predetermining deployment of field staff among other possible uses.

There was a great deal of variation among the demand and among the supply counties. The stay rates for the demand counties ranged from a high of 86 percent for Harrison County (Mississippi Gulf Coast) to 11 percent for Desha County (Southeast Arkansas). The most heavily utilized counties, Jackson (Mississippi), Shelby (Tennessee), and Pulaski (Arkansas), with 424 of the 828 relocatees during this time period had an average of 54 percent stayers of those relocatees hired in those three counties. The remaining ten major demand counties averaged 45 percent stayers. On the supply side of the flow, the range in stay rates was from 82 percent in Forrest County (Southeast Mississippi) to 14 percent in Ashley County (Southeast Arkansas). The six most heavily recruited counties, Coahoma and Yazoo Counties in Northwest Mississippi, Alcorn and Prentiss Counties in Northeast Mississippi, and Chicot and Phillips Counties in Southeast Arkansas with 284 of the 828 relocatees recruited during this period had an average of 39 percent stayers from among those relocatees recruited in these six counties. The remaining twenty major supply counties averaged 48 percent stayers. A curious pattern emerges here: the most heavily developed counties for relocatee jobs were on the average the counties where relocatees were most likely to be stayers. On the other hand, the reverse happened when relocatees were recruited: those counties that had among the lowest likelihoods of producing stayers were the most heavily recruited or canvassed for relocatees.

Much of the above discussions would suggest that, among other things, variations or differences in the various counties, whether as sources of labor or of jobs, might account for some of the variations or differences in the stay rates. The results of the subsequent exploration of such variations in stay rates by county of origin of destination proved unfruitful. While there is a great amount of variation in characteristics from one county to another, this variation played no discernible role in the differences in stay rates of relocatees to and from the supply and demand counties studied by this Project. Rank-order correlation analysis proved useless in finding any relationships between the stay rates of the counties, whether supply or demand, and eighteen (18) characteristics that

described the general quality of life in those counties (Table 39). Apparently, the relocatees were not responding to or assessing their environments in making their decisions to remain in or leave their new areas; furthermore, the environment, or surrounding conditions, in their home counties, did not seem to play significant roles in the same decisions.

So far, analysis of secondary data available from the census has provided no insights into the push and pull factors or return migration in a subsidized worker relocation program context. The areas in which to look seem to be the characteristics of the migrants, or relocatees, themselves, and their personal, individual, and private life situations. While it was fairly easy to determine some of the salient characteristics of the counties or labor markets that attracted relocatees (migrants?), it was not possible to similarly determine those which would be most likely to retain those migrants after their arrival or those that would have the most attraction for a reverse movement. A research possibility that needs further study is the relationship between the comparability of the home county and the demand county and the impact of this comparability (or lack of) on relocation stay rates. At least one demographer has suggested that the return migration rates might be related to the degree of comparability of the communities of origin and destination.[30]

Wage Aspirations

It has been suggested by past research that one of the attractions of changes in behavior or residence is the possibility, or better yet, the probability, that one's income will be increased. More often than not this increase must be perceived sufficient enough to motivate action. Most of us have a notion of how much of an increase of income would be required to motivate a change in behavior, all other things being equal. For some people no amount of increased income will result in change of a given behavior. The change of present interest is that of geographical location after relocation.

All of the relocatees with prior wage income earned significantly more on their new jobs (Table 40). What all the 413 applicants were offered during their job interviews is not known. However, their wage aspirations are known; the relocation rates increased with increase in wage aspirations (Table 3, Chapter 5). Since new job wages were routinely discussed in the interviews with prospective employers, it is possible that (1) the new wages were close to those aspired; or (2) the new wages were attractive, irrespective of aspirations; or (3) the new wages were not important.

Table 41 shows how close the stayers and leavers came to their aspired wages. It is readily apparent that the stayers came closer than the leavers. Those whose new wages were the same as or more than their aspirations were significantly more likely to be stayers. There may have

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[30] Everett S. Lee, "A Theory of Migration", Demography, 3 (1966), pp. 47-57.

Table 39: Correlations between Selected Characteristics of Counties and Stay Rates of Relocatees during January 1970 - February 1973

Characteristic	Supply Counties (26)		Demand Counties (13)	
	Correlation	Prob.*	Correlation	Prob.*
% Families Receiving Welfare	-.3404	ns	-.7417	.02
Median Family Income	-.1020	ns	+.3654	ns
Average Weekly Wages (All Jobs)	+.1546	ns	+.4341	ns
% Families below Poverty Level	-.1290	ns	-.4340	ns
% Males and Females Who Worked 26 Weeks or Less	+.0518	ns	+.1305	ns
% Employed in Agriculture	-.1924	ns	-.5123	ns
% Employed in Manufacturing	-.2078	ns	-.2857	ns
% Population over 24 years that are High School Graduates	+.1116	ns	+.6539	.05
% Workers Who Commute Outside County	+.1693	ns	-.0412	ns
% Civilian Labor Force Unemployed	-.1769	ns	-.0274	ns
% Males and Females (16 yrs. and over) in Labor Force	-.0159	ns	+.2968	ns
% Nonwhite Population	-.1053	ns	-.2815	ns
% Population Change: 1960-1970	+.0837	ns	+.2212	ns
% Change in Employment: 1966-1971	+.0812	ns	+.1264	ns
% Migrants 5 years and over	+.1905	ns	+.2459	ns
% Urban population	+.0240	ns	+.3572	ns
% Housing lacking Plumbing	-.1092	ns	-.3736	ns
% Occupied Units with Over 1.00 Persons per Room	-.0268	ns	+.1250	ns

*For the 26 supply counties, a correlation of +/-0.393 was needed for significance at the .05 or 5% probability level.
For the 13 demand counties, a correlation of +/-0.566 was needed for significance at the 5% probability level.

Table 40: Relocation Wages of Stayers and Leavers

Wages	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
1.00 - 1.30	1*	0.8	-	-	1	100.0
1.31 - 1.59	-	-	1*	0.5	1	0.0
1.60 - 1.80	31	26.3	89	47.8	120	25.8
1.81 - 2.00	13	11.0	32	17.2	45	28.9
2.01 - 2.30	19	16.1	24	13.0	43	44.2
2.31 - 2.80	26	22.0	20	10.8	46	56.5
2.81 - 3.30	9	7.6	11	5.9	20	45.0
3.31 - 4.00	16	13.6	9	4.8	25	64.0
4.01 - 6.00	3	2.5	-	-	3	100.0
Total	118	99.9	186	100.0	304	38.8

*Does not include tips.

Table 41: Relocation Wages vs. Aspiration Wages for Relocatees

Relocation Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
More than aspiration wages	47	62	109	43.1
Same as aspiration wages	26	35	61	42.6
Less than aspiration wages	38	78	116	32.8
Total	111	175	286	38.8

been a feeling of frustration or anger after once being relocated and finding that the new area required higher wages than expected because of the higher costs of living.[31]

Expanding the data in Table 41 to show the percentage differentials between new wages and aspired wages, Table 42 shows that from one differential to another the stay rates vary considerably, rising and falling. However, there appears to be a "break point" beyond which the likelihood of staying is significantly improved. Seventy-four percent of the relocatees who received 31 percent or more than they aspired were stayers while only 36 percent of those below that level were stayers.[32]

Table 43 examines by 10 cent intervals the differences between the new wages and aspired wages of the stayers and leavers. Again the stay rates fluctuate considerably. There is a "break point" at $ .61 or more over aspired wages. Sixty-five percent of the relocatees who received $ .61 or more over their aspirations were stayers while only 36 percent of the others were stayers.[33]

By collapsing the distribution to five intervals that seem to capture, as it were, some adjacent clusters of similar stay rates, Table 44 is the result. The stay rates peak at the first, third, and fifth intervals and sag at the other two. Attempts at explaining this fluctuation were unsuccessful. Sorting out the relocatees in terms of number of dependents, on the idea that those with more dependents might have higher wage aspirations because of higher economic need, the fluctuations in stay rates were repeated regardless of the number of dependents (Tables 45, 46, 47). The stay rates were unrelated to the "interaction" between numbers of dependents and the discrepancy between aspired and actual new wages; the effect seems to be a simple one---the stay rates increase with the number of dependents and are unrelated to the size of the wage discrepancies. Another explanatory attempt was equally unsuccessful (Tables 48 and 49). Prior labor force experience did not account for the fluctuations either.

Another way to look at the wage differentials is to compare the new wages with those prior to relocation. Table 50 shows that 77 percent of those with prior wage income received wage increases by relocating to new jobs. The increases were significantly higher for the stayers than for the leavers, yet the stay rates do not show any consistent pattern as the wage differentials increase or decrease. Preliminary statistical analysis

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[31]A spot check of job orders indicated a number of relocatees received starting wages less than those stated in the job orders. That some of the employers reneged may have caused disenchantment and subsequent returns home.

[32]The corresponding "t value" for the difference in these two stay rates was 3.602 which was significant at the 5 percent probability level.

[33]The corresponding "t value" was 2.709 which was significant at the 5 percent probability level.

Table 42 : New Wages as Percent of Aspired Wages for Stayers and Leavers

Percent	Stayers	Leavers	Total	Percent Stayers
Over 50% less	2	1	3	66.7
41% - 50% less	1	4	5	20.0
31% - 40% less	1	4	5	20.0
21% - 30% less	8	5	13	61.5
11% - 20% less	11	27	38	28.9
1% - 10% less	15	37	52	28.8
Same*	26	40	66	39.4
1% - 10% more	22	31	53	41.5
11% - 20% more	8	11	19	42.1
21% - 30% more	2	7	9	22.2
31% - 40% more	6	3	9	66.7
41% - 50% more	4	-	4	100.0
51% - 60% more	2	1	3	66.7
61% - 70% more	-	2	2	0.0
71% - 80% more	2	-	2	100.0
81% - 90 more	-	2	2	0.0
91% - 100% more	-	-	-	-
Over 100% more	1	-	1	100.0
Total	111	175	286	38.8

*Same equals ± 0.9%

Table 43: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages for Relocatees (in $ .10 intervals)

New vs. Aspired	Stayers	Leavers	Total	Percent Stayers
Over $1.00 less	4	6	10	40.0
.91 - 1.00 less	1	1	2	50.0
.81 - .90 less	4	1	5	80.0
.71 - .80 less	0	3	3	0.0
.61 - .70 less	3	1	4	75.0
.51 - .60 less	1	0	1	100.0
.41 - .50 less	2	4	6	33.3
.31 - .40 less	4	14	18	22.2
.21 - .30 less	5	13	18	27.8
.11 - .20 less	5	18	23	21.7
.01 - .10 less	9	17	26	34.6
Same	26	35	61	42.6
.01 - .10 more	18	25	43	41.9
.11 - .20 more	4	14	18	22.2
.21 - .30 more	5	4	9	55.5
.31 - .40 more	2	4	6	33.3
.41 - .50 more	2	3	5	40.0
.51 - .60 more	1	4	5	20.0
.61 - .70 more	4	2	6	66.7
.71 - .80 more	2	1	3	66.7
.81 - .90 more	0	0	0	----
.91 - 1.00 more	2	0	2	100.0
Over $1.00 more	7	5	12	58.3
Total	111	175	286	38.8

Table 44: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages of Relocatees (Reduced Differentials Categories)

New vs. Aspired Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
$.41 or less	15	16	31	48.4
$.11 - .40 less	14	45	59	23.7
$.10 less to .10 more	53	77	130	40.8
$.11 - .60 more	11	22	33	33.3
$.61 or more	18	15	33	54.5
Total	111	175	286	38.8

Table 45: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages of Relocatees with No Dependents

New vs Aspired Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
$.41 or Less	6	12	18	33.3
.11 - .40 Less	5	28	33	15.2
.10 Less to .10 More	28	54	82	34.1
.11 - .60 More	7	22	29	24.1
.61 or More	6	3	9	66.7
Total	52	119	171	30.4

Table 46: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages of Relocatees with One Dependent

New vs Aspired Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
$.41 or Less	2	1	3	66.7
.11 - .40 Less	4	7	11	36.4
.10 Less to .10 More	4	4	8	50.0
.11 - .60 More	2	4	6	33.3
.61 or More	1	0	1	100.0
Total	13	16	29	44.8

Table 47: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages of Relocatees with Two or More Dependents

New vs. Aspired Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
$.41 or Less	7	5	12	58.3
$.11 - .40 Less	5	11	16	31.3
$.10 Less to .10 More	20	13	33	60.6
$.11 - .60 More	4	7	11	36.4
$.61 or More	9	3	12	75.0
Total	45	39	84	53.6

Table 48: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages of New Entrants in the Labor Force

New vs. Aspired Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
$.41 or Less	4	5	9	44.4
$.11 - .40 Less	2	15	17	11.8
$.10 Less to .10 More	17	26	43	39.5
$.11 - .60 More	5	8	13	38.5
$.61 or More	4	1	5	80.0
Total	32	55	87	36.8

Table 49: New Wages vs. Aspired Wages of Relocatees with Prior Labor Force Experience

New vs. Aspired Wages	Stayers	Leavers	Total	Percent Stayers
$ .41 or Less	11	11	22	50.0
.11 - .40 Less	10	30	40	25.0
.10 Less to .10 More	36	51	87	41.4
.11 - .60 More	10	21	31	32.3
.61 or More	10	7	17	58.8
Total	77	120	197	39.1

Table 50: Stay Rates for Differentials between Wages of Old and New Jobs of Relocatees

New Wage vs. Old Wage	Stayers	%	Leavers	%	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
New Less	14	16.9	28	22.0	42	33.3
No Change	2	2.4	4	3.1	6	33.3
.01 - .10+	3	3.6	8	6.3	11	27.3
.11 - .20+	5	6.0	11	8.7	16	31.2
.21 - .30+	13	15.7	19	15.0	32	40.6
.31 - .40+	6	7.2	9	7.1	15	40.0
.41 - .50+	3	3.6	9	7.1	12	25.0
.51 - .60+	2	2.4	6	4.7	8	25.0
.61 - .70+	5	6.0	1	0.8	6	83.3
.71 - .80+	1	1.2	5	4.0	6	16.7
.81 - .90+	4	4.8	6	4.7	10	40.0
.91 - $1.00+	2	2.4	4	3.1	6	33.3
Over $1.00+	23	27.7	17	13.4	40	57.5
Total	83	99.9	127	100.0	210	39.5

indicates a "break point" for significantly increasing the likelihood of staying at over $ .20 per hour more than the old wage.[34]

Table 51 indicates that the stayers were much more likely than the leavers to have received new wages much more than their old wages. Again as with Table 50 and Tables 44 through 49, the stay rates are erratic. However, another "break point" is suggested at the 31 percent plus differential over the old wage where the likelihood of being a stayer is increased significantly.[35]

What are some of the conclusions to be reached from these and related data? (1) The stayers had higher wage aspirations than the leavers. (2) Prior work experience and number of dependents were unrelated to wage aspirations. (3) The stayers came closer to their aspirations than did the leavers and the stayers were more likely to exceed their aspirations. (4) While the number of dependents was unrelated to wage aspirations, it was positively related to new wages, and the likelihood of staying increased with the number of dependents (Table 1) and higher new wages. (5) Prior work experience was unrelated to new wage levels. (6) While frustration may have occured in relation to not obtaining the aspired wages, many relocatees did not remain on their new jobs to qualify for raises toward those aspirations. (7) It has not been possible to fully develop the impact of the new wage/aspired wage relationship with relocation stability. Finally, some approximate "break points" beyond which the likelihoods of staying is significantly increased through manipulation of starting wages for relocatees: (1) new wages greater than 30 percent of aspired wages, (2) new wages greater than $ .60 over aspired wages, (3) over $ .20 per hour over the old wage, and (4) over 30 percent increase in the new wage over the old wage.

The following chapters will explore fully some of the economic aspects on relocating with emphasis upon ways of measuring and predicting the performance of work relocation programs.

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[34]Thirty-two percent of those whose new wages were up to $ .20 per hour more than their old wage, including those whose new wages was less, were stayers. Forty-four percent of those over $ .20 per hour more were stayers. The "t value" was -1.662 which was significant at the 5 percent level of probability.

[35]At 31 percent or more over old wages 48 percent of the relocatees were stayers versus 34 percent stayers at less than 31 percent over old wages. The "t value" for the difference was +1.885 which was significant at the 5 percent probability level.

Table 51: New Wages as a Percent of Old Wages: For Relocatees with Prior Wages

New Wage % of Old Wage	Stayers	Leavers	Total Relocatees	Percent Stayers
Over 50% less	1	3	4	25.0
41% - 50% less	1	1	2	50.0
31% - 40% less	3	3	6	50.0
21% - 30% less	3	8	11	27.3
11% - 20% less	4	5	9	44.4
1% - 10% less	2	6	8	25.0
Same *	2	5	7	28.6
1% - 10% more	7	15	22	31.8
11% - 20% more	15	26	41	36.6
21% - 30% more	5	11	16	31.2
31% - 40% more	6	7	13	46.2
41% - 50% more	7	7	14	50.0
51% - 60% more	2	6	8	25.0
61% - 70% more	6	5	11	54.5
71% - 80% more	3	3	6	50.0
81% - 90% more	1	3	4	25.0
91% -100% more	-	2	2	0.0
Over 100%	15	11	26	57.7
Total	83	127	210	39.5

*Same equals $\pm$ 0.9%

Chapter 7: An Evaluation of the Economic Impact of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project on Program Participants

Relocation through government sponsored programs can affect individuals in various ways. The purpose of this chapter is to investigate the economic impact which the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc. (MLMP) had on those who participated in the follow-up survey. To achieve this purpose, three areas of most probable impact---earnings/income, employment experience, and occupational status---are analyzed in the sections that follow.

Analytical Methods

Analysis was conducted on the basis of tabular classifications compared for significance of differences between categories and by the use of multiple regression techniques. Classifications were generally made in one of the following ways: (1) Program participants were divided into relocatees (N = 229), nonrelocatees (N = 83), and local placements (N = 77) for comparative purposes; and (2) in some instances relocatees were subdivided between those who stayed 3 months or more in the area of relocation (stayers: N = 118) and those who relocated but stayed less than 3 months (leavers: N = 111).[36] Nonrelocatees received no services except for interviews and travel in some cases. The MLMP, in cooperation with the Mississippi Employment Service, obtained local jobs for the 77 persons designated as local placements.[37]

In several instances analysis was undertaken to compare employment experience or income of participants prior to screening with their experiences after relocation (or at time of follow-up for nonrelocatees). In the case of several respondents a full 12-month period had not elapsed between the time of screening and the follow-up interview. In order not to lose these observations, employment and earnings data were annuallized on the basis of experience to date of follow-up. This allowed comparisons for all classifications to be made for the period 12 months prior to program participation with a comparable time period subsequent to screening.

Effects of Relocation on Labor Force and Employment Status

In order to ascertain the impact of the relocation program on the employment status of relocatees (stayers and leavers) relative to non-

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[36]For a discussion of the characteristics of Relocatees and Nonrelocatees upon which this analysis is based see Technical Appendix A, pp. 1-4.

[37]The results of comparisons of Relocatees and Local Placements must be interpreted in light of the significant differences in personal characteristics between the Relocatees and those placed locally. Such differences are particularly noticeable with regard to race and sex.

relocatees and local placements, comparisons were made between groups in terms of employment status before and after the relocation. The labor force status of all Project participants prior to entrance into the program is portrayed in Table 52---categorized on the basis of Project results, i.e., relocatee stayer, relocatee leaver, nonrelocatee or local placement. Table 53 reveals the status of the participants after relocation (or an equivalent time for nonrelocatees and local placements).

Table 52 shows that almost 40 percent of all program participants were outside of the labor force and an additional 15 percent had been unemployed six months or more prior to entering the program. One major status of the program participants prior to participation, outside the labor force, can be categorized into those who had no prior jobs and those who did not have jobs within the 12 months prior to screening for program services. A slightly higher percentage of stayers and leavers than non-relocatees were outside of the labor force prior to the move. The greater prevalence of the nonlabor force status among the relocatees partly reflects the relative youth of the relocatees, many of whom were in school sometime during the year prior to their relocation.

The unemployed were represented approximately equally in all four groups. Examination of Table 52 reveals, however, that relocatees who were unemployed prior to the move tended to have somewhat stronger attachment to the labor force than nonrelocatees. For example, thirty-nine percent of the stayers and 37 percent of the leavers had been unemployed 15.9 weeks or less compared to 29 percent for the nonrelocatees.

Labor force data collected after relocation revealed that at the time of the follow-up survey almost 75 percent of all participants were employed (Table 53). Although all groups improved their employment status following relocation (or an equivalent time for nonrelocatees), the improvement in the status of the stayers was much more marked than that of the nonrelocatees and the leavers. Only 54 percent (45 persons) of the nonrelocatees and 61 percent (68 persons) of the leavers were employed at the time of the follow-up interview compared to 99 percent (117 persons) for stayers. The annuallized employment experience data presented in Table 54 represent the proportion of time employed between screening and follow-up. Employment experience data in Table 54 reveal that stayers had a much stronger attachment to the labor force. Less than one percent of the stayers were employed less than 26 weeks compared to 36 percent for nonrelocatees. Additionally, over 88 percent of the stayers had better than 39.0 weeks per year employment experience (44 percent were better than 50.0 weeks) compared to only 17 percent for nonrelocatees. It would appear that relocation had a definite economic benefit in providing employment for stayers which was not experienced by nonrelocatees and leavers. Column 4 of Table 54 also shows the employment experience of those persons who were employed locally in jobs that became available after participants had received screening and counseling through the relocation program.

Table 52: Labor Force Status Before Move (In Percents)*

Labor Force Status	Non-Relocatees	Stayers	Leavers	Local Placements	Total
Weeks Unemployed	61.4	60.2	61.3	58.4	60.4
4.0 - 7.9	(15.7)	(6.8)	(14.4)	(19.5)	(13.4)
8.0 - 15.9	(13.2)	(32.2)	(22.5)	(14.3)	(21.8)
16.0 - 23.9	(10.8)	(7.6)	(13.5)	(10.4)	(10.5)
24.0 - 35.9	(10.8)	(5.9)	(3.6)	(9.1)	(6.9)
36.0 - 43.9	(6.0)	(4.2)	(3.6)	(3.9)	(4.4)
44.0 - 52.0	(4.8)	(3.4)	(3.6)	(1.3)	(3.3)
Outside the Labor Force	38.6	39.8	38.7	41.6	39.6
Prior Job Experience	(6.0)	(11.0)	(9.0)	(6.5)	(8.5)
No Job Experience	(32.5)	(28.8)	(29.6)	(35.1)	(31.1)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Components may not sum to totals because of rounding.

Table 53: Labor Force Status After Move (In Percents)

Labor Force Status	Non-Relocatees	Stayers	Leavers	Local Placements	Total
Weeks Unemployed					
4.0 - 7.9	9.6	---	8.1	3.9	5.1
8.0 - 15.9	4.8	0.8	8.1	3.9	4.4
16.0 - 23.9	3.6	---	9.9	1.3	3.8
24.0 - 35.9	1.2	---	7.2	7.8	3.8
36.0 - 43.9	---	---	3.6	3.9	1.8
44.0 - 52.0	---	---	0.9	---	0.3
Employed	54.2	99.2	61.3	77.9	74.6
Outside the Labor Force	26.5	0.0	0.9	1.3	6.2
Total	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.2

Table 54: Employment Experience of Program Participants After Move
(In Percents)

Weeks Employed	Non-Relocatees	Stayers	Leavers	Local Placements	Total
50.0 - 52.0	4.8	44.1	5.4	23.4	20.6
39.0 - 49.9	12.0	44.1	31.5	45.4	33.9
26.0 - 38.9	20.5	11.0	19.8	11.7	15.7
13.0 - 25.9	13.2	0.8	20.7	3.9	9.8
0.1 - 12.9	22.9	0.0	21.6	14.3	13.9
0.0	26.5	0.0	0.9	1.3	6.2
Total	99.9	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.1

Regression Analysis of Employment Experiences

Unemployment was, of course, significantly lower for stayers than for all other groups. Furthermore, provisional indications are that many of the nonrelocatees and those locally placed appeared to be have been experiencing long-run unemployment problems.

Further support for the conclusions that improvement in the employment status of the stayers was more marked than that of other groups is found in the data of Table 55 which contains results of three regression models. All three models regressed selected demographic and economic variables (independent variables) on employment experience (dependent variable) after participating in relocation (or an equivalent time for nonrelocatees and local placements). Model I examines the relationship between relocatees and nonmovers (including local placements); Model II compares stayers to local placements; and Model III analyzes leavers relative to local placements. A number of variables were significant in the three models. For example, age was significant in Model I; education in Models I and II; and weeks employed prior to relocation in Model I. However, relocation was the only variable that was significant at the .01 level in all three models. Model III reveals that relocation was not beneficial employment-wise (a negative relationship) if relocatees left their place of relocation.

Although a more detailed analysis of the impact of relocation on various aspects of the relocation process is presented in subsequent sections, it is obvious that relocation can contribute significantly to employment. Further follow-ups of the entire population would be necessary to ascertain the continual effect of relocation. However, there are some preliminary indications that relocatees improved their attachment to the labor force.

Occupational Change

Change of geographic area was frequently associated with a simultaneous occupational change (and probably change of industry) for relocatees. Stayers exhibited a major shift out of farming and other agricultural pursuits (Table 56). All other groups showed some increase in agricultural activities which is contrary to the national trend. The presence of youthful labor force entrants who were outside of the labor force prior to program screening may explain part of this phenomenon.

Stayers showed slight improvement after relocation in the professional, technical and managerial occupations. All groups showed an increase in clerical and sales with stayers showing the largest increase (from 2.5 percent before to 10.2 percent after). The largest occupational increase for stayers was in the structural occupations (5.9 percent before and 41.5 percent after) of which an increase in the number of welders was significant.

Table 55: Regression Analysis of Employment Experience

Independent Variables	I Relocatees (229) vs Nonrelocatees and Local Placements (160)	II Stayers (118) vs Local Placements (77)	III Leavers (111) vs Local Placements (77)
Age	2.02* (2.63)	1.38 (1.84)	0.44 (0.42)
Age Squared	-0.02* (-2.09)	-0.02 (-1.36)	0.00 (0.11)
Education	1.06* (2.45)	0.03 (0.07)	1.35* (2.27)
W Employment	0.18** (3.19)	0.03 (0.58)	0.12 (1.59)
Sex	-0.57 (-0.24)	0.43 (0.18)	3.66 (1.11)
Race	5.56** (2.54)	2.47 (1.23)	4.47 (1.50)
Dependents	-2.16 (-1.02)	-0.50 (-0.24)	-1.26 (-0.42)
Training	3.05 (1.66)	4.44* (2.31)	1.86 (0.75)
Relocatees	9.65** (5.25)	9.69** (4.77)	-8.31** (-2.93)
N	389	195	188
R	.44	.45	.44
F-Values	10.21	5.11	4.89

Values in parentheses are "t" values
*significant at the .05 level
** significant at the .01 level

Table 56: Occupational Status of Program Participants Before and After Relocation
(In Percents)

DOT Category	Stayers		Nonrelocatees		Leavers		Local Placements	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
Professional, Technical And Managerial	0.8	2.5	---	---	---	0.9	---	1.3
Clerical & Sales	2.5	10.2	4.8	6.0	4.5	7.2	7.8	22.1
Service	13.6	8.5	9.6	12.0	9.0	9.0	16.9	18.2
Farming, Fishing, etc.	11.9	1.7	2.4	10.8	11.7	15.3	2.6	2.6
Processing	0.8	0.8	2.4	---	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.3
Machine Trades	---	1.7	---	1.2	---	---	1.3	1.3
Bench Work	0.8	2.5	1.2	1.2	5.4	1.8	2.6	2.6
Structural Work	5.9	41.5	16.9	16.9	7.2	19.8	5.2	28.6
Miscellaneous	30.5	30.5	30.1	26.5	27.0	44.1	24.7	20.8
Outside of the Labor Force	33.0	---	32.5	25.3	34.2	0.9	37.7	1.3
Total	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.1	100.1

On a one-to-one basis, stayers showed some indication of skill upgrading. Sixteen stayers who were classified as packaging and materials handlers (manual laborers) before relocation were classified in semi-skilled structural operations after relocation. At the same time, eight persons were moving occupationally from farming to packaging and materials handling which, although an entry level occupation, represented an income increase for such persons. Those stayers outside of the labor force prior to relocation (including new entrants to the labor force) moved into packaging and materials handling (11 persons), construction (9 persons), clerical and sales (7 persons), service (2 persons), processing (1 person), and bench work (1 person).

It can be concluded that relocation was associated with a reduction in unemployment and nonlabor force status and an improvement in the occupational status of the stayers. At the same time, the jobs to which the stayers moved were in occupational classifications of a significantly higher socioeconomic status than the ones left behind in their area of departure.

Relocation and Earnings

Even though there were improvements in employment experience and in occupational status due to relocation, the improvement necessary if the program is to be judged completely successful is improvement in income. To ascertain the effect of relocation on earnings, changes in the earnings of program participants were examined and compared. In addition, multivariate analysis was used to isolate the effect of relocation on income.

Relocatees--Earnings Before and After

There was a significant improvement in the average monthly earnings of those who moved compared to their average monthly earnings in the 12 months immediately preceding relocation. As Table 57 indicates, the average earnings of movers almost doubled after relocation increasing from $177 to $340. This average does not include those who had zero earnings in the 12 months prior to relocation. Thirty percent of those program participants who accepted relocation had no earned income prior to moving. Because job placement was a part of the relocation service, all relocatees had some earnings after moving. The increase of $163 per month in average earnings after relocation represents a marked improvement in the income position of relocatees.

Average Earnings--Stayers, Leavers, and Nonrelocatees

The difference between the average monthly earnings of movers ($177) and nonrelocatees ($159) in the 12 months prior to relocation was not statistically significant. However, differences in average earnings of the

Table 57: Average Monthly Earnings Before and After Relocation

Participation Categories	Earnings Before	Earnings After
Nonrelocatees	$159	$179
Relocatees	177	340
Stayers	208	452
Leavers	142	221
Total	$174	$303

two groups at the time of follow-up was significant at the .01 level. Average monthly earnings of nonrelocatees did increase by $20, or 13 percent. This is a minor increase, however, when compared to the 92 percent increase in the earnings of relocatees.

As previously noted, after relocation all relocatees had earnings. The same is not true for nonrelocatees. In the 12 months prior to first interview, 36 percent of the nonrelocatees had no earnings. In the period between first interview and follow-up, 18 percent of the nonrelocatees still had zero earnings.

When relocatees are divided into those who stayed 3 months or more and those who did not, it was found that, in the 12 month period prior to relocation, leavers and nonrelocatees were not significantly different with respect to monthly earnings; however, stayers were different from both leavers and nonrelocatees. This difference is accounted for primarily by better prerelocation employment experience among stayers rather than by higher pay rates.

As can be seen in Table 57, stayers had relatively large increases in average monthly earnings. The postrelocation earnings of stayers and leavers were significantly different at the .01 level. There was also a change in postrelocation earnings of leavers and nonrelocatees. This difference would appear to be partially a function of time spent in the area of relocation. Leavers who stayed more than one month had average postrelocation earnings of $281 compared to the $179 for nonrelocatees. However, those who left the area before a month had elapsed had average monthly earnings of $165, or less than the earnings of nonrelocatees. Leavers who stayed less than one month still experienced a greater percentage increase in earnings (31 percent) than did nonrelocatees (13 percent).

Hourly Rates of Pay Before and After Relocation

The hourly pay rates of relocatees increased from $1.73 to $2.20 on the average. These rates reflect the wage received on the current or most recent job held prior to moving and at the time of follow-up interview. As Table 58 indicates, not only did the average hourly rate increase but the range also shifted upward. Prior to relocation 21 percent of the relocatees earned less than the current federal minimum wage ($1.60), and only 16 percent earned over $2.00 per hour. In addition, 30 percent had no job at all in the 12 months prior to relocation. After relocation, only 7 percent of the relocatees were receiving hourly wages below the federal minimum, and 56 percent held jobs in which the rate exceeded $2.00 per hour, while over one-fourth held jobs which paid $2.80 or more per hour.

Nonrelocatees actually had an average hourly pay rate which exceeded that of relocatees prior to moving. However, the average hourly earnings

Table 58: Hourly Pay Rates of Current or Most Recent Job: Before and After Relocation*
(In percents)

Hourly Pay Rates	Before Relocation		After Relocation			
	Relocatees	Non-relocatees	Relocatees	Stayers	Leavers	Non-relocatees
$1.00 or Less	7	2	1	0	1	1
1.01-1.30	3	1	1	0	1	4
1.31-1.50	11	7	5	2	9	7
1.51-1.80	25	28	21	9	34	25
1.81-2.00	8	7	16	10	23	16
2.01-2.30	3	7	15	17	13	6
2.31-2.80	6	8	14	19	9	8
2.81-3.30	2	1	8	12	4	4
3.31-4.00	4	2	15	24	5	0
4.01-6.00	1	2	4	7	1	4
Not Employed	30	35	N/A	N/A	N/A	25
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

*After relocation "current wages" refers to 117 of the 118 stayers, 68 of the 111 leavers, and 45 of the 83 nonrelocatees who were employed at the time of the follow-up interview. The wages for the remaining 43 leavers were those at the time of leaving the relocation job.

of nonrelocatees was essentially the same at the time of follow-up (up from $2.01 to $2.02) while that of relocatees had increased by 27 percent. Further, the distribution of hourly rates did not change significantly for nonrelocatees, including a substantial number with no earnings.

There was an important difference in the pay rates of those who left prior to one month in the area of relocation and those who left after one month. The average hourly rate for the early leavers was $1.67 compared to $2.10 for those who stayed at least one month. When this is compared to the $2.65 average hourly earnings of stayers there is foundation for a strong a priori belief that the pay rate may be an important factor in who stays and who does not.

Average Monthly Income

There was no significant difference in the average monthly income of relocatees and nonrelocatees prior to the time of relocation. After relocation the difference was significant at the .01 level. The monthly income of relocatees increased from $185 to $486, an increase of 163 percent while that of nonrelocatees increased by only 22 percent from $166 to $202. Most of the difference between average income and average earnings both for relocatees and nonrelocatees resulted from earnings of secondary family workers. It is significant to note that at the time of follow-up over half the leavers and the nonrelocatees had an average monthly income which placed them below the poverty level as measured by almost any accepted poverty standard (See Table 59).

Multivariate Analysis of Income

Even though the data presented above clearly indicate that those who were relocated by the Project had substantial improvement in their income and earnings it was not possible to categorically attribute such changes to relocation. To improve the validity with which it can be stated that relocation was a major factor, if not the major factor, in income changes of relocatees, a number of regression equations have been included in the analysis. These equations utilize two dependent variables, the annual income after relocation (or after screening for nonrelocatees) and the change in income.

Annual Income After Relocation

Several regression equations were analyzed in which annual income after relocation was the dependent variable. Annual rather than weekly or monthly income was used as the dependent variable in order that both monetary and employment experience improvements would be included in the variable. In some cases a full 12 months had not elapsed between screening and follow-up interviews. For these respondents, their income

Table 59: Average Monthly Income Before and After Relocation
(In percents)

Average Monthly Income	Before Relocation		After Relocation			
	Relocatees	Non-relocatees	Relocatees	Stayers	Leavers	Non-relocatees
$ 0- 50	7	6	0	0	0	8
51-100	20	24	5	0	10	15
101-150	16	12	5	0	10	16
151-200	16	11	6	0	11	16
201-250	10	11	7	3	12	6
251-300	12	16	8	7	12	7
301-350	8	7	6	7	4	7
351-400	4	6	11	12	9	2
401-450	2	0	12	13	10	8
451-500	2	2	5	7	2	1
501-550	1	3	5	9	3	2
551-600	1	1	4	4	4	0
601-650	1	0	3	2	4	4
651-700	0	0	4	6	2	4
Over 700	0	1	19	30	7	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

to the time of follow-up was annuallized to make it compatible with that of other respondents and to allow the observations to be retained.

The regression equations included nine independent variables:

1. Age--two variables were used to measure the influence of age on income. One continuous variable measured in years and another which is the square of the first. The latter variable was included to allow for the probable nonlinear relationship between age and income.
2. Education--a continuous variable which measures the number of years of formal education.
3. Sex--a dichotomous variable which takes the value of 1 for a male respondent and 0 for a female.
4. Race--a dichotomous variable which takes the value of 1 for white respondents and 0 for nonwhite respondents.
5. Weeks employed in 12 months prior to relocation--a continuous variable designed to measure lack of employment experience and/or labor force attachment.
6. Dependents--a dichotomous variable taking the value of 1 if the respondent had dependents and 0 otherwise. In this variable, the spouse is counted as a dependent.
7. Training--a dichotomous variable taking the value of 1 if the respondent had vocational training and 0 otherwise.
8. Relocation--a dichotomous variable which takes the value of 1 if the respondent was moved by the mobility project and 0 otherwise. This is the key independent variable which isolates the influence of mobility on income.

Income of Relocatees and Nonrelocatees

Table 60 shows the results of applying the regression model to data pertaining to relocatees and nonrelocatees. Income was significantly affected by several factors including education, race, sex, and training which were all significant at the .01 level; the results re-enforced the findings of numerous other studies which previously found these variables to have had a significant impact on income. However, in dollar terms the coefficient of the relocation variable was the most important and was statistically significant at the .01 level.

In general, relocatees had $1,871.43 more annual income than did the respondents as a whole when age, race, sex, education, and training were held constant. It must be recognized that the multiple correlation coefficient is relatively low, indicating that other factors affecting income have not been included in the regression model.

Income--Stayers, Leavers, and Nonrelocatees

The two equations shown in Table 61 indicate that the results reported in the preceding section are attributable primarily to those

Table 60: Regression Analysis of Postrelocation Income of Relocatees and Nonrelocatees

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficients	t-values
Age	233.47*	2.07
Age Squared	-3.16	-1.78
Race	891.61**	2.75
Dep	706.87*	2.38
Educ	329.13**	5.61
W Empl	11.51	1.37
Sex	1421.77**	4.09
Train	842.55**	3.28
Reloc	1871.43**	6.92

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.
Multiple Correlation Coefficient = .62
N = 312
F = 20.20

Table 61: Regression Analysis of Annual Income of Stayers, Leavers, and Nonrelocatees

Independent Variables	Stayers vs. Nonrelocatees (a)		Leavers vs. Nonrelocatees (b)	
	Regression Coefficients	t-values	Regression Coefficients	t-values
Age	264.07*	2.18	69.61	0.056
Age Squared	-3.62	-1.95	-1.18	-0.60
Race	885.61**	2.58	1156.64**	2.91
Dep	413.83	1.27	-2.17	-0.01
Educ	210.25**	3.10	200.26**	2.97
W Empl	12.06	1.29	15.77*	2.0
Sex	1172.28**	3.23	798.99*	2.01
Train	1271.11*	4.35	574.52*	2.07
Reloc	3057.85**	10.92	703.98**	2.66

* significant at .05 level.
** significant at .01 level.
(a) Multiple Co-relation Coefficient = .76; N = 195; F = 29.08
(b) Multiple Co-relation Coefficient = .48; N = 188; F = 6.13

who were classified as stayers. Both stayers and leavers had post-relocation annual income superior to that of nonrelocatees and in both regression equations the relocation variable was significant at the .01 level. Numerically, stayers had an annual income advantage over non-relocatees attributable to relocation of $3,057.85. Although the relocation variable was significant in the equation for leavers and nonrelocatees, the value of the coefficient was only $703.98.

The regression results demonstrate that relocation itself had an impact on the level of income of relocatees. Significant financial benefits can be attributed to mobility when the relocatee remains in the area of relocation three months or more.

Change In Income

To further substantiate that mobility plays an important role in the income status of respondents, the difference in annual earnings prior to relocation (12 months) and after relocation was used as the dependent variable in regression analysis. The same independent variables were utilized with the exception of the relocation variable. In the following regression models the effect of relocation is measured by three dichotomous variables:

Stayer--1 if respondent stayed in the relocation area three months and 0 otherwise.

Nonrelocatee--1 if not relocated and 0 otherwise.

Local Placement--1 if placed in a local job by program and 0 otherwise.

The three variables are referenced with regard to Leavers.

Education and training were the only variables other than the mobility variables which are statistically significant in explaining income changes (Table 62). The regression coefficient for stayers was $1,757.40, signifying that stayers improved their annual income by that much in relation to leavers. The category "nonrelocatees" was also significant at the .01 level, but it was negatively related to earnings changes. Leavers were $1,302.16 better off with respect to annual income than nonrelocatees. Although the results indicated that local placements fared better than leavers, the difference was not significant.

The results affirmed the importance of relocation in the improvement of income. The above analysis left little doubt that relocation had important financial benefits for program participants.

Table 62: Regression Analysis of Change in Earnings of Total Participants

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficients	t-values
Age	-122.59	-1.25
Age Squared	1.86	1.21
Race	299.66	1.10
Sex	174.76	0.59
Educ	232.32**	3.90
Train	835.11**	3.32
Stayer	1757.40**	5.55
Nonrelocatee	-1302.16**	-3.99
Local P1	451.33	1.23

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.
Multiple Correlation Coefficient = .49
N = 389
F = 13.49

Relocation and Local Placement

With the cooperation of the Mississippi Employment Agency, local employment was obtained for 77 of the program applicants. This presents the opportunity to compare effects of jobs locally on income with that of sponsored mobility. On the average, local placements had increases in their annual income of $2,232.73 which was $1,447.67 less than the average increase of $3,680.40 for stayers. But, as the regression results shown in Table 62 indicate, the change in income for local placements was not significantly different from that of leavers.

Table 63 shows the results of regression analysis covering data for stayers and local placements. The dependent variable is post-relocation annual income. Independent variables included are the same as defined on page 125 with the exception of the relocation variable. The relocation variable takes a value of 1 if the respondent is a stayer and 0 if he is a local placement.

Regression results confirmed the importance of relocation on a permanent basis (stayer). In terms of absolute income levels, stayers were $822.46 better off than local placements and the variable coefficient was significant at the .01 level.

However, placement in a local job was a financial benefit to participants relative to nonrelocatees. But even though local placement was of benefit to some from an income standpoint, only a limited number of local jobs were available, and local placement was not a viable alternative for most program participants.

In general, the multivariate analysis confirmed the results of analysis in other chapters of this report---mobility had a significant effect on income for program participants. Further, the regression analysis provided evidence that the Project had significant impact on other economic improvements of participants. Although factors such as training, age, and education were important in determining income, their impact on income of permanent movers was over-shadowed by the effects of "mobility" itself. From the standpoint of the individual who was relocated, the economic rewards were substantial.

Table 63: Regression Analysis of Annual Income of Relocatee Stayers and Local Placements

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficients	t-values
Age	155.14	1.10
Age Squared	-1.19	-0.55
Educ	233.21**	2.85
W Empl	5.72	0.53
Sex	1340.13**	3.09
Race	882.25	2.35
Dep	622.24	1.38
Train	1027.04*	2.36
Stayer	822.46**	3.16

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.
Multiple Correlation Coefficient = .50
N = 195
F = 7.08

Chapter 8: Measures of Labor Mobility Project Effectiveness: Benefit/Cost Analysis and Stayer/Leaver Model

Relocation project effectiveness can be measured in a variety of ways. Previous chapters have discussed the direct impact that the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project has had on program participants. The present chapter focuses on two additional measures of Project performance. The first measure is a comparison of Project costs relative to the benefits resulting from the Project, i.e., benefit/cost analysis. Second is a study of how long relocatees remain in the demand area (relocation stability). The use of relocation stability as a measure of Project performance indicated the need to develop a model to explain and predict which applicants are likely to become stayers and leavers. The second part of this chapter identifies those factors that were associated with relocatees that stayed in the demand area a specified period of time.

Both of the measures mentioned above provide additional information concerning the MLMP. Their importance depends upon the particular frame of reference with which one views the Project. Neither is designed to be used in isolation as a measure of program performance. This is perhaps best illustrated by the fact that to use one as a single decision criteria could have a direct and significant impact on the data that the other would use in the evaluation process.

Benefits and Costs

The following is a summary of the technical analysis of the benefits and costs of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project. All the data summarized here are presented and discussed in detail in Appendix A. The reader who is interested in the statistical methods employed in the benefit/cost study would benefit from reading Appendix A prior to reading this chapter. In addition to summarizing the technical benefit/cost findings, an example of how the findings can be used to improve future relocation project performance is included in this section.

The purpose of benefit/cost analysis is to compare the costs of a project to the stream of benefits that have accrued as a result of the project. Relocation project benefits arise primarily from increased relocatee earnings which are a result of relocation to an area of greater job opportunity. The greater opportunity may consist of higher per hour earnings, more job stability, or both.

Data

The data used in the analysis of the MLMP's benefits and costs are from a sample of 312 applicants processed for relocation services from December 1971 through February 1973. The 312 persons consist of 229

relocatees and 83 nonrelocatees. The sample of 312 participants located for the follow-up interview is from a total of 413 persons processed for relocation services during the time period under study. Eighty-seven local placements were not included in the analysis because their participation was incidental to Project objectives, utilizing only slack time for Project employees.

Social Benefits and Costs

The technique employed to calculate program benefit/cost results involved comparison of the 229 relocatees with the 83 nonrelocatees. Regression analysis was used to measure the influence of relocation on the earnings of the relocatees. The annual increase in earnings due to relocation was estimated to be an average of $3,058 for the 118 "stayers" and an average of $704 for the 111 "leavers". The combined weighted estimate of average annual increase for the total group was $1,618. It was not possible with available data to determine how far into the future relocatees will earn more than nonrelocatees, but even over a short time horizon the level of per relocatee benefits will produce an excess of benefits over costs. The total annual estimated benefits for all relocated persons during the study period were $491,872.

No attempt was made to add any gains resulting from local placements. The MLMP was primarily a relocation effort and any gains to local placements was treated as incidental to the Project. However, some gains to the program did occur, and, if evaluation of the Project were not being viewed solely in terms of relocation activity, the gains from local placement activity would be estimated and included in the benefit/cost evaluation.

Total Project costs were estimated to be $397,511 for the time period being investigated, resulting in a per relocatee cost of $1,308. During the period being analyzed the Project was concurrently engaged in research work which reduced the number of relocations. The cost per relocatee was higher than for normal operation periods when a larger volume of relocation took place.[38] The estimate of costs is therefore biased upward relative to those which would be expected from a project which was totally mission oriented. Detailed cost analysis of earlier periods of MLMP operation is provided in an accompanying report.[39]

Given estimated benefits of $491,872 and estimated costs of $397,511, the MLMP produced benefits in excess of costs for the study period. During the year, the Project generated benefits in excess of costs sufficient to generate a rate of return of 24 percent on the "investment". Because the

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[38] From June, 1965 through November, 1971, 2,191 individuals were relocated by the Project at a cost of $1,852,821 or $846 per relocatee.

[39] Relocation Assistance Delivery Techniques, December 1973, pp. 23-26.

costs of relocation occur only in the initial time period, the longer one assumes that returns are generated, the higher will be the resulting rate of return.

Source of Benefits

It has been estimated that sizeable income gains accrued to relocatees, especially stayers, compared to nonrelocatees. Analysis was undertaken to determine the source of these gains. The nature of the relocation program makes any gain in family income due to increases in the spouse's income important. However, there was no evidence to indicate that the relocatees' spouses contributed significantly to the income gains. Income gains could be attributed to higher wages and more stability of employment for the primary wage earner in the relocated family. The estimated weekly income gain per relocatee was $33.88. Relocatees were also estimated to work 16.5 weeks more per year than nonrelocatees. Both figures indicate important benefits to society and to the individual relocatee resulting from the relocation efforts.

Private Benefits and Costs

To this point benefits and costs have been discussed from society's point of view. They can also be viewed from the perspective of the individual relocatee. Considered in this manner, private (after tax) benefits to relocatee stayers amounted to $2,473 per year and benefits for leavers were $634. Since most of the direct monetary costs of moving were covered by relocation subsidies, the income gains received by individuals could be viewed as net from their standpoint. This conclusion is of course independent of any "psychic" costs or benefits which may result due to relocation. Unless "psychic" costs exceed any reasonable estimate, relocation was a rational decision for most participants.

Predicting Relocation Stability

One of the many ways to evaluate the success of a manpower program is in terms of the stay rates of participants. In a relocation program this can be defined to mean evaluating the success of the program in terms of the percentage of relocatees who become permanent residents of the demand area. However, considering the nature of labor mobility programs, this criteria must be used cautiously. It can be argued that analysis of the mobility program in terms of stayers and leavers should be undertaken with the goal of improving the rate of permanent relocations, not by screening out high risk applicants but by providing the high risk applicants better services.

Regression analysis was conducted based on the data previously discussed to ascertain from a statistical standpoint what factors were

influential in determining why individual relocatees stayed in the demand area.[40] The purpose of this analysis was to establish a base upon which to build a predictive model. Not only can such a model be used to predict the probability of a stable relocation, but by isolating individual factors which affect the relocation outcome it can be used to help increase the probability of successful relocation of a given individual.

Factors Affecting Relocation Stability

For analytical purposes, a stable relocation was defined as staying in the demand area 6 months after relocation.[41] The dependent variable in the regression was a dichotomous variable defined as 1 if the relocatee stayed 6 months and 0 if not. Independent variables were restricted to those personal, demographic, and economic characteristics which could be identified prior to relocation. Obviously, a predictive model which required after-the-fact data would be of little practical value. On the other hand, if accounting for relocation success was the only reason for the analysis, variables which only had an effect after relocation should be included. The equation used contained the following ten variables:

Race: white; nonwhite

Sex: male; female

Marital Status: married; single

Age: 20 years or under; 21-25 years, 26-30 years; over 30 years

Education: 7 years or less; 8-11 years; 12 years

Training: skill training; no skill training

Salary at Last Job: no prior job; at or below minimum wage; above minimum wage

Salary at New Job: 1.60-1.80; 1.81-2.00; 2.01-2.20; above 2.20

Housing Prior to Relocation: rent free; rented or owned

Area of Relocation: Mississippi Coast; Tupelo; Little Rock; Memphis; Other (rural)

Race, age, and rate of pay on previous job were not statistically significant in explaining relocation success. The remaining variables

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[40]See Appendix B for the regression equations and technical results.

[41]Present relocatees had to be sorted on the basis of receiving follow-up interviews at least six months after being relocated to allow comparability with 1970-1971 relocatee data, thus reducing the original follow-up sample from 229 relocatees to 186 because only 81 percent of the present relocatees received six-month follow-ups. For various reasons subsequent comparisons with the 1970-1971 data are not included herein.

were highly significant (.01 level). In general, the results indicated that, although education and training and previous job experience had an effect on the outcome, the demand area to which a relocatee went and his new economic situation were primary factors in the decision to stay or not to stay in the demand area. Personal characteristics apparently have less effect on the success of a relocatee.

Predictive Model

The primary purpose of developing the regression model discussed above was to predict relocation stability. The results indicated that the average probability of successful relocation was .50. The results of the regression (individual coefficients) were adjusted to measure the amount that each characteristic accounted for a deviation from the mean. This is best illustrated by an example. Consider a potential relocatee with the following set of characteristics: male; nonwhite; married; no skill training; 28 years of age; high school education; no previous employment experience; and rents current housing. This individual is to be relocated to Tupelo, Mississippi from the Delta and will be placed in a job which pays $2.10 per hour. In this case the individual's probability of being a stable relocatee is not .50 but .87. This type of result can be utilized in two ways. First, a point system can be developed by which individuals who are screened into the system can be categorized according to success probability. Accuracy will of course increase considerably with a large number of cases with all characteristics well represented.

Second, the degree to which different factors increase or decrease the probability of staying can be used as the basis for determining the appropriate destination of an individual move, the nature and type of counseling which would be most beneficial, as well as supplemental services which should be provided. This could be particularly valuable in efforts to couple relocation with training. However, the predictive model is useful only as a general guide for those working with relocatees. It should not be used alone as the basis for relocation since it is based on averages and therefore cannot be expected to be totally accurate in its prediction in any single case.

Conflicting Objectives

At first glance it would appear that the use of benefit/cost criteria and a model which predicts relocation probability would be complementary as far as usefulness to an operational program. However, it can be demonstrated that the stayer/leaver predictive model must be used with caution because use for the purpose of improving stay rates by screening out individuals with a high probability of failure could produce results that reduce effectiveness of the program as measured by benefit/cost considerations.

Assume that the predictive model is used to screen out relocation applicants with a low probability of staying in the demand area. The following example illustrates the possible conflict of objectives. An arbitrary cutoff was used hypothetically to eliminate 36 families who were in fact relocated by the Project. The Project would thus have reduced its cost by the amount of expenditures which would have been made on these families. In fact, 23 of the 36 did leave the demand area before 6 months so that the application of the model would have improved the stay rate.

Thirteen of the 36 however stayed in the demand area. With annual benefits of $3,059 per stayer and $704 per leaver, total benefits would have been reduced by $55,946 in the first year alone as a consequence of screening out the 36 applicants.[42] When one considers that the per relocatee cost of $1,308 would have resulted in a cost saving of only $47,088, the trade off between lost benefits (net) and improved success rate is highly questionable.

It is, of course, possible that a predictive model which is more efficient in predicting leavers could improve stay rates and benefit/cost efficiency. However, the possibility of developing a model which could be used as a screening device and guarantee an improved benefit/cost ratio is remote.

The stayer/leaver model does have other uses, however. Obviously, turning likely leavers into stayers will improve both project stay rates and benefit/cost ratios if the additional cost outlays are not great. For example, if an additional expenditure of $500 per relocatee could have increased the stay rate of the 36 cases discussed above up to the 50 percent average for the Project, the increased benefits would have been $11,775 in the first year alone. Thus, the model cannot only improve the stay rate and the cost/benefit results but can also enhance a program as a means of aiding the disadvantaged.

Relocation-Training Linkages

The basic benefit/cost model was extended to determine if relocatees with skills training benefited from relocation more than relocatees without such training. Results indicated that gains from relocation could not be said to be higher for relocatees with skills training than for relocatees without training. The data showed that most income gains for relocatees who have had training could be attributed to relocation rather than training.

Further, analysis indicated that the probability of stable relocation was reduced rather than enhanced by skill training. This result may

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[42]Assuming the benefits for the 36 were similar to the average benefits derived earlier.

partially reflect the need for coordination between the employment available in the demand area and the type of training which potential relocatees receive.

The findings of this study with respect to the training/relocation relationship were consistent with the results of other recent studies. For example, an analysis of MDTA training by Earl D. Main indicated that benefits due to the program resulted from employment location rather than higher wage rates of the trainee.[43] This finding is compatible with our results. Another study by Robert S. Goldfarb drew essentially the same conclusion: training efforts produced their primary benefits from employment efforts rather than an upgrading of skill levels.[44]

Conclusions

The results of this chapter indicate that both the benefit/cost analysis and the stayer/leaver predictive model could be useful as inputs into the operation of a labor mobility project. Further, it is obvious that changes or modification of relocation procedures should be undertaken in order to achieve a stated objective or objectives. However, it is possible that a policy will simultaneously move a project nearer to one objective and further away from another. When such conflicts exist, project goals must be ranked and consideration given to the trade-off involved.

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[43]Earl D. Main, "A Nationwide Evaluation of MDTA-Institutional Job Training", Contract between National Opinion Research Center and the U.S.D.O.L. Manpower Administration.

[44]Robert S. Goldfarb, "The Evaluation of Government Programs: The Case of New Haven's Manpower Training Activities", Yale Economic Essays, Fall, 1969, pp. 59-104.

APPENDIX A

Benefit/Cost Analysis

The purpose of this appendix is to give details of the evaluation of the economic effectiveness of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project (MLMP) as it was operated from December 1971 through February 1973. During this period the MLMP was specifically administered as an experimental project. That is, additional personnel were hired and data were gathered with the expressed objectives in mind of both moving eligible individuals and determining whether the project represented a worthwhile investment of social funds.

The appendix is divided into four major sections. In the first section the data used in the program evaluation are briefly discussed. This is followed by a more lengthy section covering the economic effectiveness of the MLMP from society's viewpoint. Topics covered include an estimation of the project's social benefits and social costs, the calculation of a social internal rate of return and a social net present value, and an investigation of the primary source of the social benefits. Section three evaluates the program from the standpoint of the individual program participant. Finally, the payoff linkages between training and relocation are investigated.

The Data

Five-hundred persons were processed by the Project from December 1971 through February 1973. Depending upon the type and amount of services received, these people can be classified into three groups. Three-hundred and four individuals were relocated from one of the supply areas to a demand area. This group is referred to as "relocatees". The second group, known as "nonrelocatees" consisted of 109 persons who were interviewed and submitted screening information but who for one reason or another decided not to relocate. These individuals were chosen for the control group and are discussed at length in the next section. The remaining 87 persons are those whose skills qualified them for positions open in the supply area, and they were given local job matching assistance by Project personnel during slack periods in relocation operations. These people are called "local placements", and they do not enter into the analysis of program effectiveness except insofar as they might have affected social costs.[1]

Two sets of data were gathered on the relocatees and nonrelocatees. First, screening data were secured from both groups on their initial contact with MLMP offices. These data included economic variables, such as past income and employment experience, and demographic variables such as age, sex, marital status, etc. During the Spring of 1973 follow-up (after-the-move)

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[1]Local placements were not included in the control group because their demographic and economic characteristics differed substantially from those of the experimental group.

information was gathered by means of personal interviews on as many individuals as could be contacted in the two groups. MLMP personnel located and interviewed 229 of the 304 relocatees and 83 of the 109 non-relocatees. The follow-up period ranged from a high of 13 months to a low of 3 months with some 74 percent having follow-up periods of more than 6 months.

A glance at Table 1 gives a rough idea of the comparability of the three groups paramount to this analysis. Because the 229 relocatees located were not selected as a random sample of the population of 304 relocated, it cannot be stated unequivocally that the experience of the 229 are representative of the 304. However, the size of the sample relative to the population, plus a comparison of characteristics in columns 1 and 2 of Table 1 does give one a measure of confidence in the comparability of the two groups. Given the limitations to securing a representative sample in this type of evaluation one can be quite pleased with the comparability of the 229.

The degree of comparability between the sample of relocatees and the nonrelocatees (see columns 2 and 3 of Table 1) who are to serve as the control group is not quite so close and bears close scrutiny. However, further comparison of these two groups is delayed to the next section.

Social Internal Rate of Return

The primary concern in this section is the calculation of a social internal rate of return for the MLMP so that the return might be compared with alternative investments which society might consider. The social internal rate of return is that interest rate which will equate the present value of the stream of social benefits from the project with the present value of the stream of social costs of the project. Mathematically, the social internal rate of return (i_s) is expressed as:

$$[1] \qquad \sum_{t=0}^{m} \frac{B_{s_t} - C_{s_t}}{(1 + i_s)t} = 0$$

where

B_{s_t} = Social benefits from the MLMP in year t

C_{s_t} = Social costs of the MLMP in year t

i_s = Social internal rate of return

m = Time period over which the benefits and costs occur

Table 1: Characteristics of Population and Sample Relocatees and Nonrelocatees

Variables	Population Relocatees (n=304)	Sample Relocatees (n=229)	Population Non-relocatees (n=109)	Sample Non-relocatees (n=83)
Average Age	23.4	23.3	23.7	23.3
Percent White	21.4%	19.2%	16.5%	15.7%
Percent Female	14.8%	16.2%	25.7%	27.7%
Average Years Schooling Completed By Family Head	10.6	10.8	10.5	10.4
Average Weeks Employed Annually At Screening	18.6	18.5	15.0	13.3
Percent Receiving Vocational-Technical Training	31.2%	34.5%	38.5%	36.1%
Percent Single with No Dependents	58.6%	57.6%	56.9%	57.8%

Social Benefits

By providing the services of the MLMP society hopes to achieve two goals: (a) an efficiency goal--that is an increase in national production and (b) an anti-poverty goal--in this case an increase in the earnings and employment of the group eligible to receive relocation allowances. If one assumes the relocated family is paid according to its marginal product, then gross annual earnings of the relocated family (Y_r) can be used as a measure of the program's ability to achieve these two goals.

Two factors tend to make a relocated family's gross earnings a less than accurate measure of society's benefits. If the relocatees simply take jobs that would have been filled by persons presently residing in the demand area, then the output would have been produced whether the MLMP existed or not. There would be no benefits to society from the program. This phenomenon is called the "displacement effect" and is considered minimal for the MLMP since all the demand areas were selected on the basis of considerable excess demand for labor.[2]

On the other hand, it may be that by filling the jobs in the demand area the relocated family makes possible the filling of jobs complementary to theirs so that society benefits by more than the family's gross earnings. This phenomenon is called the "bottleneck effect" and has the opposite effect on social benefits from the displacement effect. Since satisfactory measures of either are not available, it is assumed that they cancel one another out.

Social Costs

Social costs (C_s) include the subsidy payments for relocation (R), the administrative costs of the program (A), and the output which society foregoes when the family participates in the MLMP rather than continuing in their present locale (Y_n).

Relocation Subsidy Payments. Relocation subsidy payments (R) are available to each family from MLMP records. These payments are divided into four parts:

A. Job interview travel assistance either by bus or use of private car (at 10¢ per mile) plus overnight expenses.

B. First week cost of living allowance issued only after applicant has accepted a bona fide job offer. This allowance is designed to maintain the applicant until his relocation assistance allowance or paycheck is received. Single relocatees received two checks at $10 each while married relocatees received four checks at $10 each.

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[2]The methodology for selecting both supply and demand areas is described in Suggestions for Identification of Potential Areas of Worker Relocation Service Demand and Supply, mimeo prepared by Mississippi Labor Mobility Project, STAR, Inc., June, 1971.

C. Cost of a physical exam if needed as part of hiring agreement. Payment may not exceed $50.

D. Grant Relocation Financial Assistance Allowances: The size and amount depend on marital status and family size: (1) All relocatees receive a travel allowance equal to cost of most economical public transportation or private car at 10¢ per mile; (2) In addition the cost of moving and storing (up to 30 days) household goods is covered (a limit of 2500 pounds for single and 7000 pounds per married relocatee); (3) Married relocatees may receive a separate maintenance allowance of $67 per week for up to two weeks if difficulty in obtaining family housing in the demand area is encountered; (4) Single relocatees receive a lump sum grant of $66 in 3 checks issued 1/3 at the time of relocation, 1/3 two weeks after relocation, and 1/3 30 days after receipt of the first lump sum. Married relocatees receive their checks according to the same schedule except the amount is $134 for the relocatee, $134 for his spouse, and $67 for each additional family member up to four such members.

Total subsidy payments to the 304 relocatees in this study are itemized in Table 2. The cost of physical exams is included in the relocation assistance allowance total. The average relocatee subsidy per family was $282.

Table 2: Total Relocation Subsidy Payments by Class

Interview Travel Expenses	$ 9,531
First Week Cost-of-Living Expenses	7,040
Relocation Assistance Allowances	69,094
Total	$85,665
Per Relocated Family	$ 282

Administrative Costs. The MLMP staff provided a number of services to the relocated family including (but not confined to) counseling in the supply and demand areas, job development service in the demand area, employer/employee job interview service in the demand area, assistance in locating temporary and permanent suitable housing in the demand area, and assistance in solving relocatee adjustment problems in the demand area.

In measuring the administrative costs (A) of the program a problem arises due to the fact that in 1972 the project was administered on an experimental basis. More personnel than normal were hired to facilitate data collection and processing. To estimate what administrative costs

would have been under more normal (i.e., non-experimental) operations, the 1971 administrative cost figures are adjusted for number of persons processed and price level changes. Administrative costs include staff travel, wages, and fringe benefits, and other administrative costs and is estimated to be $311,886 or $1,026 per relocatee.[3] One would expect the per relocatee administrative cost to decline with increases in the number of relocatees since most of its components are fixed with the exception of the staff travel element. For example, during the March 1970 - November 1971 period 960 families were relocated at an administrative cost of $552 per relocatee.

The joint costs problem often associated with measuring administrative cost is minimal for the MLMP since the Project was funded entirely by the Department of Labor/Manpower Administration and received nominal support from its parent organization (STAR, Inc.). Although the MLMP staff spent time working with local placement, conversations with the staff indicated this was done during slack periods when the staff might have otherwise been idle. Hence, efforts expended on local placements were not expected to affect administrative costs significantly.

Foregone Output. Foregone output is perhaps the most difficult of all the social costs to measure. Y_n would be whatever the family would have produced had they not relocated. The most common way to measure foregone output is to use the gross earnings of a control group made up of families with characteristics similar to those of the relocated families. Ideally those families applying for and desiring relocation assistance through the MLMP would be randomly divided into two groups--one to receive the MLMP aid (experimental group) and the ones not to receive the aid (the control group). The control group is somewhat less ideal. It is composed of families who applied for relocation assistance but which for one reason or another decided not to move--the nonrelocatees.

A major problem in using the experimental-control group technique is that the earnings of the control group may not be a satisfactory proxy for the foregone earnings of the relocatees because the demographic and/or economic characteristics of the two groups may differ. Table 1 at least casually illustrates that the two groups are quite comparable except for the sex and employment characteristics. The nonrelocatees group contains proportionately more females and has a more favorable employment experience--the former lending an upward bias and the latter imparting a downward bias to the measure of program benefits. To determine if these differences are statistically significant a statistical procedure known as the "Chow Test" is employed.[4] This test estimates whether the two groups come from the same population with respect to the measure of program performance exclusive of the condition that some sample respondents moved and some did not.

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[3]Figures based on 1972 price levels.

[4]Gregory C. Chow, "Tests of Equality Between Sets of Coefficients in Two Linear Regressions", Econometrica (July 1960), pp. 591-605.

The Chow Test involves estimating the following regression equation for (a) relocatees only, (b) nonrelocatees only, and (c) for both groups combined:

$$[2] \quad Y = b_0 + b_1(AGE) + b_2(AGESQ) + b_3(RACE) + b_4(DEP) + b_5(EDUC) + b_6(WEMPL) + b_7(SEX) + b_8(TRAIN) + \mu$$

where

Y = annual gross earnings of the family
AGE = age of family head at application date
AGESQ = age squared
RACE = race (white = 1; nonwhite = 0)
DEP = 1 if applicant has dependents; 0 if not
EDUC = number of years schooling of family head
WEMPL = number of weeks employed annually of family head
SEX = 1 if head is male; 0 if female
TRAIN = received vocational-technical training prior to application date (yes = 1; no = 0)
μ = disturbance term

For the dependent variable the following must be computed:

$$[3] \quad F = \frac{Q_3/K}{Q_2/(L+J-2K)} \quad \text{where}$$

F = F ratio
Q_1 = residual sum of squares of total sample
Q_2 = residual sum of squares of relocatee sample plus residual sum of squares of nonrelocatees
$Q_3 = Q_1 - Q_2$
K = number of regressors in regression model
L = number of observations in relocatee model
J = number of observations in nonrelocatee model

In order to reject the hypothesis that the two samples are from the same population the calculated F ratio should be greater than the critical value in the F tables. If the estimated F ratio is less than the critical value, we will assume the two groups are from the same population. The first three columns of Table 3 illustrate the results of this test. The calculated F is 7.50 and is greater than the critical value of 2.57. Hence, it is concluded that the two groups do not come from the same population. The test results will not seriously emasculate the conclusions of this study, however, but will qualify them by reducing the strength of the assertion that measured benefits are due to a strict cause-effect relationship between participation in the MLMP and our measure of program performance. In essence a comparison group rather than a control group is obtained for our measurements.

Table 3: Chow Test and Relocation Payoff Equations: Demographic and Economic Variables Regressed on Post-Relocation Annual Gross Income

Independent Variables	Chow Test Equations			Relocation Payoff Equation		
	Relocatees Only (n=229)	Non-Relocatees Only (n=83)	Both Groups Combined (n=312)	Stayers and Leavers/ Non-Relocatees (n=312)	Stayers/ Non-Relocatees (n=201)	Leavers/ Non-Relocatees (n=194)
AGE	230.37 (1.60)	235.45 (1.29)	309.91** (2.57)	233.47* (2.07)	264.07* (2.18)	69.61 (0.56)
AGESQ	-2.99 (-1.28)	-3.56 (-1.31)	-4.43* (-2.33)	-3.16 (-1.78)	-3.62 (-1.95)	-1.18 (-0.60)
RACE	620.64 (1.62)	1259.25* (2.02)	950.62** (2.73)	891.61** (2.75)	885.61** (2.58)	1156.64** (2.91)
DEP	1030.14** (2.88)	-158.01 (-0.29)	681.74* (2.14)	706.87* (2.38)	413.83 (1.27)	-2.17 (-0.01)
EDUC	393.30** (5.73)	50.34 (0.43)	366.58** (5.84)	329.13** (5.61)	210.25** (3.10)	200.26** (2.97)
WEMPL	3.78 (0.36)	27.73* (2.01)	15.85 (1.76)	11.51 (1.37)	12.06 (1.29)	18.77* (2.06)
SEX	1855.92** (4.18)	169.66 (0.31)	1681.33** (4.52)	1421.77** (4.09)	1172.28** (3.23)	798.99* (2.01)
TRAIN	841.59** (2.68)	783.39 (1.79)	799.59** (2.90)	842.55** (3.28)	1271.11** (4.35)	574.52* (2.07)
RELOC				1871.43** (6.92)	3057.85** (10.92)	703.98** (2.66)
R	.45	.55	.53	.62	.76	.48
F-Values	11.90**	2.35	14.50**	20.20**	29.08**	6.13**

Values in parentheses are "t" values.
** denotes significant at the .01 level.
* denotes significant at the .05 level.

Equation [2] was also run with the relocation dummy variable (RELOC = 1 if relocatee; 0 if non-relocatee) included and is illustrated in column 4 of Table 3.[5] At first glance it would appear that the coefficient on RELOC, $1871.43, is the estimated net annual increase in national output per relocatee ($Y_r - Y_n$) due to participation in the MLMP. Unfortunately, such a straight-forward interpretation is not possible due to the nature of the relocatee sample. This group includes both those families who relocated and stayed in the demand area and those families who were relocated and had returned to the supply area before follow-up information was collected. The sample of relocatees includes all the stayers (118) but only 111 of the 186 leavers. The result is that the coefficient on RELOC in column 4 is biased upward due to an undersampling of leavers.

To account for this bias the differential impact on annual gross earnings of stayers versus leavers was estimated. This was accomplished by estimating the coefficients of equation [2] (with RELOC added) first with only stayers in the experimental group and then with only leavers in the experimental group. The results are given in columns 5 and 6 of Table 3. The gain in annual earnings due to relocation for the stayers is $3057.85 while for leavers the comparable figure is only $703.98.[6] By giving both groups the same weight in determining MLMP payoffs as they had in the total population one arrives at net annual increase in national output per relocatee ($Y_r - Y_n$) due to MLMP participation of $1618.

Calculation of the Social Internal Rate of Return

From the discussion and definitions of variables to this point it follows that equation [1] can be rewritten as:

$$[4] \qquad \sum_{t=0}^{m} \frac{[X(Y_r - Y_n) - R - A]t}{(1 + i_s)t} = 0$$

where

X = total number of families relocated;
other variables as defined above

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[5]An attempt was also made to employ a discriminant function to account for the "self-selection bias", e.g., the mere fact that the experimental group agreed to relocation may mean they are more ambitious individuals than the comparison group. This function was ultimately omitted for two reasons. First, several of the independent variables which logically belong in the discriminant function also belong in the last equation in Table 3. This introduced a nontrivial element of multicollinearity into the equation which made interpretation of the coefficients impossible. Secondly, when included in equation [2], the discriminant function variable added nothing to the R^2 and only one dollar to the coefficient on the relocation dummy variable.

[6]This points out rather emphatically the need for judicious counseling programs for relocated families once they arrived in the demand area so that the stay-rate and social returns might be increased.

The relocation subsidy payments (R) and administrative costs (A) occur only in the initial time period. However, the net annual increase in national output (Y_r-Y_n) is a repeating gain though it cannot be stated unequivocally that it will remain constant over time or how far into the future it is likely to reoccur. In the absence of the necessary long range follow-up information, the path followed in most manpower program evaluations is taken. It is assumed that this gain remains constant, and three different internal rates of return are calculated assuming time horizons of 5, 10, and 40 years. The latter is the approximate number of years to age 65 of the average relocatee. The results are given in Table 4.

Table 4: Social Internal Rates of Return Assuming Time Horizons of 10, 20, and 40 Years

	Time Horizon		
	5 Years	10 Years	40 Years
Social Internal Rate of Return	121%	124%	124%

As one might expect, when direct costs are $397,511--occuring only in the initial time period--and benefits net of foregone earnings are $491,872--occurring repeatedly some distance into the future--the internal rate of return is quite high and indicates that the MLMP has been an excellent investment of social funds.[7]

The problems inherent in using the internal rate of return to evaluate any investment project are recognized. In particular, the technique implicitly assumes that the government could continue to reinvest the benefits at the internal rate of return rate which is an assumption which makes one very uneasy, particularly when the rate is as high as 121%. One might argue that it would have been desirable to calculate a benefit/cost ratio. The authors agree. However, given the manner in which social benefits and foregone output were measured (by manipulation of the coefficients on RELOC in Table 3) it is impossible to unambiguously separate social benefits from foregone output, hence it is impossible to construct an unambiguous benefit/cost ratio. The social net present value of the benefits to the MLMP can be calculated using the formula:

$$[5] \quad \text{Social Net Present Value} = \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{[X(Y_r-Y_n)]t}{(1+i_{sd})t} - R - A$$

[7]Note, too, that with such a high discount factor increasing the time horizon the effect on the size of the internal rate of return is negligible.

where

i_{sd} = social rate of discount;

all other variables defined as before

Letting the time horizon (m) for $(Y_r - Y_n)$ take on the values of 5, 10, and 40 years, the net present value figures given in Table 5 are calculated. A social rate of discount (i_{sd}) of 10 percent is assumed. Clearly, the statistics in Tables 4 and 5 both indicate that the returns to this particular pilot relocation program are very attractive.

Table 5: Social Net Present Value of the MLMP Assuming Time Horizons of 5, 10, and 40 Years and a Social Discount Rate of 10 Percent

	Time Horizon		
	5 Years	10 Years	40 Years
Social Net Present Value	$1,467,037	$2,624,806	$4,412,490

Source of Social Benefits

In one of the previous sections the annual increase in family gross income due to participation in the MLMP was estimated to be $1,618 on the average. In this section the source of that increase is investigated. Did the relocated family earn a greater annual income because the family head earned a higher wage rate in the new location, or because he was employed more often, or was it a combination of both influences? To what extent did the post-relocation wage rate and employment behavior of the spouse contribute to the increase in annual earnings?

To answer these questions equation [2] was rerun with the RELOC variable included but with the following dependent variables rather than post-relocation annual earnings: (a) weekly wage rate of family head during follow-up period (W_H); (b) weeks employed annually of family head during follow-up period (E_H); (c) weekly wage rate of spouse during follow-up periods (W_S); and (d) weeks employed annually of spouse during follow-up period (E_S). The results are given in Table 6.

It is apparent that the source of the social benefits reside in the wage and employment behavior of the family head. The coefficients on the relocation variable (RELOC) for the family head equations are both positive and statistically significant at the .01 level while for the spouse equations the coefficients are insignificant. According to the results family heads in relocated families earn $33.88 more per week and are employed 16.45

Table 6: Source of Payoff Equations: Demographic and Economic Variables Regressed on Employment and Wage Variables of Family Head and Spouse (n = 312)

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficients When Dependent Variable Was:			
	W_H (Family Head Wage)	E_H (Family Head Employment Experience)	W_S (Spouse's Wage)	E_S (Spouse Employment Experience)
AGE	2.51 (1.18)	2.03** (2.40)	1.23 (0.86)	0.24 (0.50)
AGESQ	-0.04 (-1.06)	-0.03** (-2.21)	-0.02 (-0.92)	-0.004 (-0.49)
RACE	9.09 (1.48)	4.23 (1.73)	12.54** (3.07)	3.28* (2.40)
DEP	4.85 (0.86)	-2.30 (-1.03)	10.94** (2.92)	4.14** (3.31)
EDUC	3.91** (3.51)	1.30** (2.96)	1.22 (1.66)	0.58* (2.34)
WEMPL	0.06 (0.36)	0.19** (3.06)	-0.03 (-0.31)	-0.003 (-0.10)
SEX	26.36** (3.99)	4.73 (1.81)	-0.02 (-0.01)	2.18 (1.49)
TRAIN	14.46** (2.97)	2.24 (1.16)	6.32* (1.96)	1.35 (1.25)
RELOC	33.88** (6.60)	16.45** (8.08)	-0.07 (-0.02)	-1.04 (-0.92)
R	.52	.57	.33	.32
F-Values	12.63**	15.89**	4.11*	3.85*

Values in parentheses are "t" values.
** denotes significant at the .01 level.
* denotes significant at the .05 level.

more weeks per year than the heads of those families that did not relocate. On the other hand, the weekly wage rate and the employment behavior of spouses in relocated families was not significantly different from spouses in families that did not relocate.

Private Benefits and Cost of Relocation

To this point the MLMP has been evaluated from society's standpoint. In this section the interest of an average program participant is considered. Private benefits and costs of the program are discussed and estimated and the private net present value of the program to the average participant is calculated.

Private Benefits

Our measure of private benefits (B_p) of the MLMP is the annual family earnings after relocation net of taxes (TX) plus transfer payments (TR) or ($Y_r - TX_r + TR_r$). If the cost of living is lower (higher) in the demand area as compared to the supply area, the private benefit estimate should be increased (lowered). Unfortunately, reliable estimates of costs of living in the supply and demand areas are not available, hence our estimate of private benefits may be biased upward or downward by some unknown magnitude.

Private Costs

Most of the direct expenses the family incurs in moving are covered by the MLMP, as noted earlier. As a result, private costs of engaging in the program consist primarily of foregone earnings. These would be measured by annual family earnings of the comparison group net of taxes plus transfers ($Y_n - TX_n + TR_n$). Just as was the case for foregone output of society, ($Y_n - TX_n + TR_n$) may not be a good proxy for the income of the family had they not moved if the characteristics of the relocatees and the comparison group are significantly different. To test for this possibility equation [2] with RELOC included was rerun with (Y - TX + TR) as the dependent variable. The results are indicated in column one of Table 7.

At first glance it would appear that the coefficient on the RELOC variable ($1550) is the increase in family net income due to relocation. However, the same problem of under-sampling of leavers (those relocatees who had left the demand area at the time of follow-up) exists here as it did in measuring social returns. To account for this the same methodology as before was used. The equation was rerun using only stayers (those relocatees who were still in the demand area at the time of follow-up) in the experimental group and then using only leavers in the experimental group. These results are illustrated in columns two and three of Table 7.

The results indicate that the private increase in net family income is $2473 for families that stayed in the demand area versus only $634 annually for families that returned to the supply area. It is suggested that in

Table 7: Private Relocation Payoff Equations: Demographic and Economic Variables Regressed On Post-Relocation Annual Income Net of Taxes and Transfer Payments

Independent Variables	Private Relocation Payoff Equation		
	Stayers and Leavers/ Non-Relocatees (n = 312)	Stayers/ Non-Relocatees (n = 201)	Leavers/ Non-Relocatees (n = 194)
AGE	246.64**	278.66**	122.35
	(2.57)	(2.78)	(1.09)
AGESQ	-3.37*	-3.84*	-1.91
	(-2.23)	(-2.49)	(-1.08)
RACE	713.06**	656.23*	1112.29**
	(2.58)	(2.31)	(3.10)
DEP	809.42**	598.02*	105.45
	(3.20)	(2.21)	(0.34)
EDUC	240.11**	159.22**	133.70*
	(4.81)	(2.84)	(2.19)
WEMPL	8.15	10.24	12.46
	(1.14)	(1.32)	(1.51)
SEX	1040.18**	687.04*	431.70
	(3.51)	(2.29)	(1.20)
TRAIN	670.34**	1020.93**	401.47
	(3.07)	(4.22)	(1.60)
RELOC	1550.09**	2473.36**	634.39**
	(6.73)	(10.67)	(2.65)
R	.60	.76	.43
F-Values	19.25**	29.18**	4.73**

Values in parentheses are "t" values.
** denotes significant at the .01 level.
* denotes significant at the .05 level.

counseling relocatees these payoff differentials be emphasized. By giving stayers and leavers the same weight in measuring private returns as they occupied in the total population of relocatees, a weighted average private increase in family income of $1,348 is obtained.

Private Net Present Value of MLMP Participation

Given the definition of variables given above the private net present value of participating in the MLMP for a relocated family is given by:

$$[6] \quad \text{Private Net Present Value} = \sum_{t=1}^{m} \frac{(Y_r - TX_r + TR_r)_t - (Y_n - TX_n + TR_n)_t}{(1 + i_{pd})t}$$

where

i_{pd} = private discount rate;

all other variables as defined in the text

The net gain in family income $[(Y_r - TX_r + TR_r) - (Y_n - TX_n + TR_n)]$ is assumed to remain constant over time and private net present values are computed for stayers, leavers, and an average family assuming time horizons of 5, 10, and 40 years. A private discount rate of 5 percent is used. This is the approximate rate of return on passbook savings which is the primary investment source for individuals in this income class. The resulting calculations are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Net Present Value of MLMP Participation to Stayers, Leavers, and the Average Relocatee Assuming Time Horizons of 5, 10, and 40 Years and a 5 Percent Private Discount Rate

Type of Family	Net Present Value Time Horizon		
	5 Years	10 Years	40 Years
Stayer	$10,708	$19,097	$42,434
Leaver	$ 2,745	$ 4,896	$10,879
Average	$ 5,835	$10,409	$23,130

From a purely monetary standpoint, participation in the MLMP appears to have been an attractive investment in human capital for the stayers and perhaps for the leavers, too. However, information on the return on alternative investments the participants might have made would be needed to

determine if they made a rational decision. It should also be emphasized that the measures of private benefits and cost are purely monetary and do not include any psychic benefits or costs the relocated family might have encountered as a result of their move. These psychic factors are obviously difficult to quantify. Larry Sjaastad in his classic article on migration suggests that these psychic elements can safely be ignored in the investment decision.[8]

The Training/Relocation Linkage

A number of the program participants had enrolled in government sponsored job training programs--such as WIN or MDTA--prior to accepting relocation assistance from the MLMP. It would be of interest to policy-makers to learn if the payoff to relocation was greater for the trained vs. the untrained relocatee. If there is a payoff differential and the goal of the MLMP is to improve economic efficiency, the government might want to concentrate its relocation efforts on the group with the greater potential payoff, ceteris paribus.

The inclusion of the training variable (TRAIN) in equation [2] permits holding constant any differences in degree of training program participation between the control group and the relocatees. However, it does not reveal the interactions between training and relocation which is the topic of this section. In order to discover these interactions the following regression equation is employed:

$$[7] \quad Y = b_0 + b_1(AGE) + b_2(AGESQ) + b_3(RACE) + b_4(DEP) + b_5(EDUC) + b_6(WEMPL) + b_7(SEX) + b_8(TRAIN) + b_9(RELOC) + b_{10}(TRAIN\text{-}RELOC) + \mu$$

where

> TRAIN, RELOC, and TRAIN-RELOC are dummy variables given the values shown in Table 9 and all other variables are defined as in equation [2].

From Table 9 one can see the RELOC is the relocation variable, TRAIN is the training variable, and TRAIN-RELOC is the variable picking up the interaction between training and relocation. Once the parameters in equation [7] are estimated the marginal effects on family earnings of (a) receiving training is b_8, (b) of relocation is b_9 and (c) receiving both training and relocation is $b_8 + b_9 + b_{10}$. The estimated coefficients for equation [7] are presented in Table 10.

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[8]Larry A. Sjaastad, "The Costs and Returns of Human Migration", Journal of Political Economy (October, 1962, supplement), p. 85.

Table 9: Descriptions of TRAIN, RELOC, and TRAIN-RELOC

Family Characteristics		Values of Variables		
Trained	Relocated	TRAIN	RELOC	TRAIN-RELOC
no	no	0	0	0
no	yes	0	1	0
yes	no	1	0	0
yes	yes	1	1	1

The results indicate that significant effects on income were achieved only for relocated families. The coefficient on the TRAIN variable is $652.17 but is statistically insignificant whereas the value of b_9, the RELOC coefficient, is $1,779.22 and is highly significant. The coefficient on the interaction term TRAIN-RELOC is not significantly different from zero in a statistical sense which suggests that families with heads who have received some vocational-technical training should not necessarily be given any priority in order to maximize social return to the relocation project.

Table 10: Estimated Coefficients on Equation [7]: The Training-Relocation Linkage

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficients (N = 312)
AGE	232.63* (2.06)
AGESQ	-3.16 (-1.78)
RACE	898.69** (2.76)
DEP	713.97* (2.40)
EDUC	328.04** (5.58)
WEMPL	11.45 (1.36)
SEX	1410.30** (4.04)
TRAIN	672.18 (1.37)
RELOC	1779.22** (5.34)
TRAIN-RELOC	263.85 (0.48)
R	.61
F-Value	18.15**

Values in parentheses are "t" values.
** denotes significant at the .01 level.
* denotes significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX B

Predicting Relocation Stability: Model and Uses

Evaluation of a manpower program can only be undertaken within the framework of the objectives which were formulated for the program at its inception or which have been developed during its operation. Such objectives may be broad and social in nature such as reducing unemployment, increasing Gross National Product, or improving the relative position of a target group.[1] Other objectives may focus on improving the income and/or employment position of individuals or some other objective which is individual in nature. There are many ways of evaluating the success and impact of manpower programs in light of their objectives. One of the most utilized is to examine the number of "successful" participants relative to the total number of participants. Another widely used evaluation technique is benefit-cost analysis which measures the relationship between program costs and program benefits in dollar terms relative to some fixed standard or to the benefit-cost figures for other programs. Both types of evaluation have been undertaken in efforts to measure the overall impact and results of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project (MLMP). Regardless of which type of evaluation one examines, it becomes apparent that the overall impact of the program can be significantly increased by increasing the number of individual program participants who can be regarded as having successfully completed the program. In order to make an effort to increase the number of successful participants, it is necessary to carefully evaluate the reasons which might have accounted for individual success or failure. Further, improved success rates require the ability to predict with some degree of accuracy the probability of an individual success. The purpose of this section of the overall MLMP report is to outline a possible method by which such prediction can be made of labor mobility projects.[2]

Success for an individual who participates in a labor mobility program is defined in terms of relocation stability. In this study it is defined as remaining in the relocation area for a period which exceeds 6 months. Based upon this definition, it is possible to develop a system of weights which can be assigned to the individual characteristics of program participants which would be known prior to relocation. The weights would be assigned to characteristics which had been found to be associated with

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[1]For a brief discussion of the many types of goals manpower programs may have and the difficulties which arise in evaluating their impact because of this see: M. E. Borus and W. R. Tash, Measuring the Impact of Manpower Programs: A Primer, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, The University of Michigan-Wayne State University, November, 1970.

[2]Kiker and Liles have discussed an alternative method, the use of discriminant functions, which they used to identify potential failures in participants of retraining programs: B. F. Kiker and W. P. Liles, "Identifying Potential Failures in Retraining Programs", The Journal of Human Resources, Vol. VII, No. 4 (Fall, 1972), pp. 548-53.

staying or leaving. These weights could be expressed as a system of points. The variable most important in determining relocation stability would be assigned the highest number of points and each successively less important variable fewer and fewer points. Once a reliable system of weights has been determined, the results could be used to determine an applicant's likelihood of successful relocation. Assume that a list of several characteristics, each related to an applicant's likelihood of becoming a stable relocatee, has been formulated. Stability prediction points can then be assigned for each characteristic possessed by the potential relocatee based on the weights. Once the points have been assigned, the greater the point total for an individual, the stronger the likelihood that he will be a stable relocatee.

Identifying Stayer-Leaver Characteristics

The first step in developing a point system is to identify those characteristics which are associated with relocation success or failure. The characteristics must be restricted to those which can reasonably be expected to be known prior to relocation. Such information can only be developed from the prior experience of a mobility project. The illustration outlined below is based on data derived from the records of individuals who participated in MLMP between December, 1971 and February, 1973.

The relationship between successful relocation and individual characteristics of program participants was investigated through the use of a multivariate technique called ordinary least squares multiple regression.

Since relocation success is measured in terms of staying in the area of relocation 6 months or more, an individual relocatee is either successful or nonsuccessful. Therefore, it is necessary to use a dichotomous dependent variable in the regression analysis--1 if successful and 0 if unsuccessful.

A statistical problem emerges when using a dichotomous dependent variable because the assumption of homoskedasticity which is part of ordinary least squares analysis is inaccurate. It has been demonstrated that although the coefficient estimates are statistically unbiased, the variance of the disturbance term depends on the values of the explanatory variables.[3] Although methods have been suggested to handle this problem by calculating the estimated values of the independent variables by ordinary least squares and using these as weights to calculate corrected regression equations, this is in general not workable because of the possibility that estimated values may in actuality be less than

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[3]Arthur S. Goldberger, Econometric Theory (New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1964), pp. 248-50; Goldberger has shown that $E\ell_t = (X_t'\beta)(1-X_t'\beta) = Ey_t(1-Ey_t)$; therefore, the disturbance is heteroskedastic and varies systematically with X_t.

zero or greater than one. This means that in general the estimates of the standard errors of the regression coefficients are biased and inconsistent.

In this analysis no effort was made to adjust the regression results for two reasons. First, past studies have generally found such adjustments to be minor relative to the effort involved. Secondly, the purpose of this regression is to serve as the basis for prediction; therefore, increased accuracy in determining the statistical significance of the individual variables is not as important as it might otherwise be.

All the dependent variables which are being used in this analysis are characteristics which an individual participant will either possess or not possess or are variables which stem from conditions which either do or do not exist. The qualitative nature of most of the variables which are to be investigated have lead to extensive use of dummy variables in the regression equations.[4] Using dummy variables allows such factors as education, marital status and age to be investigated without forcing them into a linear form since the use of dummy variables requires no specification of the functional relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. It does assume that the effects of different variables on the dependent variable are additive, an assumption which at times may not be accurate.

The nature of dummy variables is such that for any set of N categories within a dummy variable identification of N-1 categories by definition identifies all N categories since each observation must fall into one and only one category, all other categories being zero for that observation. This makes it impossible to estimate the regression equation directly because there are more coefficients than there are independent normal equations based on the ordinary least squares criteria. More than one method exists to handle this problem, but the most widely used method and the one adopted here is to constrain one category of each dummy variable to zero. The coefficient estimates will then measure the net effect of membership in one category of a dummy variable relative to membership in the omitted category.

The model which was utilized in this analysis contains the following independent variables:

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[4]A brief discussion of the use of dummy variables in regression analysis can be found in Daniel B. Suits, "Use of Dummy Variables in Regression Equations", American Statistical Association Journal, (December, 1957), pp. 548-551; a good nontechnical discussion of the use of dummy variables is in Emanual Melichar, "Least Squares Analysis of Economic Survey Data", Proceedings of the Business and Economics Section of the American Statistical Association (September, 1965), pp. 373-385; for a technical discussion of dummy variables and their uses, see Arthur S. Goldberger, Econometric Theory (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964) pp. 173-177, 218-231, 248-255; J. Johnston, Econometric Methods (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), pp. 221-228.

Race: white; nonwhite

Sex: male; female

Marital Status: married; single

Age: 20 years or under; 21-25 years; 26-30 years; over 30 years

Education: 7 years or less; 8-11 years; 12 years

Training: skill training; no skill training

Salary at Last Job: no prior job; at or below minimum wage; above minimum wage

Salary at New Job: 1.60-1.80; 1.81-2.00; 2.01-2.20; above 2.20

Housing Prior to Relocation: rent free; rented or owned

Area of Relocation: Mississippi Coast; Tupelo; Little Rock; Memphis: Other (rural)

One category was omitted from each variable and the remaining variables regressed in 0-1 form, against the dependent variable (1 if successful and 0 otherwise). The results are shown in Table 1.

The R^2 is obviously low, but this was not unexpected. First, many variables which affect relocation stability have been purposely omitted because they cannot be ascertained prior to relocation. There is also the strong probability that a high degree of multicollinearity exists among some of the independent variables. Because dummy variables do not lend themselves to meaningful correlation matrices, it is impossible to ascertain the extent of the multicollinearity. This is not an overly serious problem since the basic purpose is to construct a predictive rather than an explanatory model.

Because of the use of dummy variables the standard formats for reporting regression results are less than ideal. When one of the categories of each dummy variable is set equal to zero, the coefficients that are found by the regression analysis are deviations from that category. What is desired to present for analysis is the deviation of each category from the general mean, in this case the percentage of the study group that relocated successfully. Also, there is no coefficient for one category of each dummy variable. It is possible however to adjust the results to recover the missing information.

Two properties or constraints which stipulate, first, that the sum of deviations for a variable about the grand mean weighted by the number of observations in each category must equal zero and, second, that transformation of variables must not alter the difference which exists

Table 1: Regression Results for Successful Relocation

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficients	t-Values
Race		
White	.02	.19819
Sex		
Male	-.22	2.00
Marital Status		
Married	.14	1.44
Age		
Less than 21	-.13	1.01
21 - 25	-.12	.96
26 - 30	-.05	.35
Education		
Less than 8 years	-.02	.15
8 - 11 years	-.17	2.08
Training		
Prior skill training	-.09	1.21
Salary at Last Job		
No prior job	.059	.65
Below minimum wage	.06	.75
Salary at New Job		
$1.60 - $1.80	-.25	2.42
$1.81 - $2.00	-.19	1.80
$2.01 - $2.20	.01	.04
Housing Prior to Relocation		
Rent Free	-.14	1.48
Area of Relocation		
Tupelo	.09	.84
Little Rock	.16	1.22
Memphis	.19	1.90
Coast	.29	2.51

Dependent Variable: Stayed in demand area 6 months or more
N = 186
Constant Term = .84
Correlation Coefficient = .51
F = 3.10

between the predicted values for different categories of each factor have been used to transform the regression results. The new format is one in which the constant term is the percent of moves for the entire sample, the difference between each coefficient and the sample mean, listed in tables as adjusted deviations, represents the deviation of that category from the sample mean holding constant the effect of all other factors, and therefore is a coefficient for each category of every factor including the category set equal to zero in regression analysis.[5] The adjusted deviations are therefore deviations of the category being examined from the sample mean with the influence of other variables removed by multivariate analysis. The results of the conversion process are shown in Table 2.

Individual regression coefficients are estimates of the net effect of belonging to that particular category of the dummy variable as opposed to the category which was omitted from the regression to prevent there being a linear relationship among categories within the dummy variable.

The t values shown test the significance of differences between individual categories and the omitted category and should not be interpreted as testing significance of the individual category in explaining variation in the dependent variable.

F ratios were used to test significance of each set of dummy variables in explaining the variation in rates of geographic mobility. These F ratios were calculated by reestimating the regression equation omitting a different dummy variable set each time. F ratios were calculated as follows:

$$F = \frac{(R_I^2 - R_{II}^2) \quad (N - k_1 - k_2 - 1)}{(1 - R_I^2) \quad (k_1)}$$

where:

R_I^2 = coefficient of multiple determination for the regression equation with (k_1+k_2) variables.

R_{II}^2 = coefficient of multiple determination for the regression equation with k_2 variables.

k_1 = number of independent variables representing dummy set I.

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[5]The general procedure which has been followed here is found in J. Lansing and W. Ladd, "An Example of the Conversion of Regression Coefficients into Deviations about the Grand Mean", unpublished note, Survey Research Center, University of Michigan (October, 1962).

Table 2: Converted Regression Results for Successful Relocations

Grand Mean: .50			
Independent Variables	N	Deviations from Grand Mean of .50	F-Values
Race			
White	34	0.02	.035
Black	152	0.00	
Marital Status			
Married	53	0.10	1.95
Not married	133	-0.04	
Training Status			
Skills training	72	-0.06	1.39
No skills training	114	0.04	
Housing			
Rent free	114	-0.05	2.02
Paying own housing cost	72	0.09	
Age			
20 and under	84	-0.03	.39
21 - 25	61	-0.02	
26 - 30	20	0.05	
Over 30	21	0.11	
Education			
7th grade and less	13	0.05	2.12
8th - 11th	78	-0.10	
12th grade and more	95	0.08	
Old Job Wages			
No prior job	58	0.02	.31
Minimum wage job	68	0.02	
Above minimum wage job	60	-0.04	
New Job Wages			
$1.60 - $1.80 per hour	34	-0.18	3.34
$1.81 - $2.00 per hour	28	-0.12	
$2.01 - $2.20 per hour	24	0.07	
Above $2.20 per hour	100	0.07	
Demand Area			
Coast	35	0.16	2.44
Tupelo	27	-0.04	
Little Rock	19	0.03	

Table 2: Regression Results - Converted (Continued)

Grand Mean: .50			
Independent Variables	N	Deviations from Grand Mean of . 50	F-Values
Demand Area (Continued)			
Memphis	48	0.05	
Other (rural)	57	-0.14	
Sex			
Male	154	-0.04	
Female	32	0.18	3.72

k_2 = number of independent variables other than those representing dummy set I.

N = number of observations.

Point System

The results shown in Table 2 can be converted into points by several methods. The easiest for purposes of this example is to assign points to each characteristic based directly on the percentage deviation which each point causes from the grand mean. Table 3 shows the points assigned to each predictive characteristic in the model by this method. The range of possible point totals is from -126 to +156 depending on the particular combination of characteristics which apply to any individual program participant. The higher the point total assigned to an individual, the greater would be his probability of becoming a successful relocatee.

In order to assure the greatest possible accuracy, the point system should be revised on a regular basis to incorporate the actual results of relocation efforts of an operating program. Further, there are certainly additional variables which are relevant and for which it would be possible to obtain information prior to relocation. For example, personality and/or aptitude test results could be incorporated into the model. There would in all probability also be variables peculiar to a particular mobility program such as the location variables in this model. Such variables must be included in a predictive model.

Uses of the Point System

Simple prediction is not the only use which can be made of the point system. In fact, it may very well be one of the least important uses. An important use of the point system could occur when the pool of relocation applicants exceeds available job slots. Relocatees could be drawn out of the pool based on predicted points. The person with the greatest point total is selected for relocation assistance. However, such a procedure may conflict with legislated relocation guidelines. Even if the probability of success is small, it may be considered socially desirable to offer relocation assistance to single, poorly educated young persons. And although the stay rates among these persons are low, the benefits associated with the small number of stayers, even on economic grounds, may justify the effort. It is also possible that the high point applicants may be more likely to find suitable employment on their own, and therefore, subsidized relocation is not vital to achieve proper allocation of high-point persons among various labor markets. But for others with fewer of the stay-related characteristics, relocation assistance may be extremely important in precipitating a move to an area of greater opportunity. In other words, pursuing a goal of a higher stay rate may not improve labor force allocation if relatively immobile but employable persons are passed over. More research on the

Table 3: Point Schedule for Characteristics

Characteristics	Points
Race	
White	4
Nonwhite	0
Marital Status	
Married	20
Not married	- 8
Age	
Under 21 years of age	- 6
21 - 25 years of age	- 4
26 - 30 years of age	10
Over 30 years of age	22
Sex	
Male	- 8
Female	36
Training	
Skill training	-12
No skill training	8
Education	
Less than 2 years education	10
8 - 11 years education	-20
12 years or more education	16
Old Wages	
No prior job	4
Prior minimum wage job	4
Prior job above minimum wage	- 8
New Wages	
$1.60 - $1.80	-36
$1.81 - $2.00	-24
$2.01 - $2.20	14
Over $2.20	14
Demand Area	
Coast	32
Tupelo	- 8
Little Rock	6
Memphis	10
Other (rural)	-28

proper target populations for LMP's is needed, and an attempt must be made to determine the necessary stay rate among relocatees if program benefits are to exceed costs.

Another use of predicted points would be to use the points as a basis for recommending that the applicant with little predicted likelihood of success enter other programs prior to relocation. Skills training or more "general" education are possibilities. Or a low predicted point score could serve as a signal that extra LMP staff attention is necessary. Finally, the predicted points may indicate that local placement offers the best chance of success for some LMP applicants.

The following examples illustrate some of the possible applications discussed above. Case 1 of the two cases presented in Table 4, according to the point totals assigned by the predictive model, has the best chance of becoming a successful relocatee. Further, the model shows that the factors which are most important in determining the probability of success of Case II, or the lack of success, are youth and marital status. Since such factors are beyond the control of manpower programs to directly alter, it would seem that Case II may require significantly more counseling by the Mobility Project staff if he is to become a successful relocatee.

The point system also shows that there are options open to the staff of a mobility project which can enhance the probability of success; for example, they could select the "better" area of relocation for each individual relocatee. Further, although cause and effect relationships based on this analysis must be approached with care, it seems obvious that the wage level received in the new job is an important determinant of relocation stability.[6]

Other factors of possible significance can be obtained from analysis of the point system. For example, skill training reduces, not enhances, the probability of successful relocation. This could indicate that training prior to relocation is not geared to jobs in the relocation areas, therefore adding to the frustrations of the relocatee. If true, this would point to the need for better coordination between manpower training programs and labor mobility programs.

Conflicts in Objectives

Using an indicator to evaluate project performance suggests that the indicator may be helpful in formulating program policy. Selecting project objectives and measuring the degree to which the objectives have been achieved are obviously related. Certainly, program policy should be directed at improving the level of project performance based on carefully specified evaluation criteria.

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[6]See related discussions in Chapter 6.

Table 4: Pre-Relocation Characteristics - Two Examples

Case I		Case II	
Characteristics	Points	Characteristics	Points
White	4	White	4
Married	20	Single	-8
Male	-8	Male	-8
36 years old	22	22 years old	-4
8 - 1 years school	-20	High school	16
No training	8	No training	8
Total Points	26	Total Points	8

Therefore, changes or modification of relocation procedures should be undertaken in order to achieve a stated objective or objectives. However, it is possible that a policy will simultaneously move the project nearer to one objective and further away from another objective. When such conflicts exist, project goals must be ranked or consideration must be given to the trade-off involved in adopting a policy which at the same time benefits and harms the project.

At first glance it would appear that the use of benefit-cost criteria and a model which predicts relocation probability would be complementary as far as usefulness to an operational program. However, it can be demonstrated that the stayer-leaver predictive model must be used with caution because use for the purpose of improving stay rates by screening out individuals with a high probability of failure could produce results that reduce effectiveness of the program as measured by benefit-cost considerations.

Assume that the predictive model is used to screen out relocation applicants with a low probability of staying in the demand area. The following example illustrates the possible conflict of objectives. An arbitrary cutoff was used to eliminate 36 families who were, in fact, relocated by the project. The Project would thus have reduced its cost by the amount of expenditures which would have been made on these families. In fact, 23 of the 36 did leave the demand area after relocation so that the application of the model would have improved the stay rate by a considerable amount.

Thirteen of the 36, however, stayed in the demand area. With annual benefits of $3,059 per stayer and $764 per leaver, total benefits would have been reduced by $55,946 in the first year alone as a consequence of screening out the 36 applicants. When one considers that the per relocatee cost of $1,308 results in a total cost of $47,088, the tradeoff between lost benefits (net) and improved success rate is highly questionable.

It is, of course, possible that a predictive model which is more efficient in predicting leavers could improve stay rates and benefit-cost efficiency. However, to achieve a model which could be used as a screening device and guarantee and improve benefit-cost ratio is highly unlikely and probably not desirable.

The stayer-leaver model does have other uses, however. Obviously, turning likely leavers into stayers will improve project stay rates and benefit-cost ratios if the additional expenditures are not great. For example, if an additional expenditure of $500 per relocatee could have increased the stay rate of the 36 cases discussed above up to the 50 percent average for the Project, the increased benefits would have been $11,775 in the first year alone. Thus, the model not only improves the stay rate and the cost-benefit results but enhances the Project as a means of aiding the disadvantaged.

Conclusions

The results of this illustration indicate that the development of a predictive model holds the possibility of improving the "success" of a labor mobility project in terms of the number of relocatees who become permanent. Although there is a possibility that the use of more elaborate statistical techniques would improve the explanatory power as well as the predictive power of the model developed, to be useful in an operating program the point system must be kept as simple as possible.

Finally, it must be remembered that the point system is based on the results of past relocation efforts and represents averages not individuals. Any attempt to use it as a cutoff for program admission in individual cases would not only be incorrect, but detrimental to the purpose of most labor mobility projects.

APPENDIX C

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Subsidized Worker Relocation: A Survey of Employers' Evaluations

The bulk of the analysis of the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project has been focused upon the clients of the Project, particularly those who were relocated to the various demand areas. Until now, almost no attention has been paid to the employers of the relocatees. Since employer satisfaction with the labor referral services this type of project provides is crucial to the effective operation of such projects, it is necessary that worker relocation be assessed from the employers' viewpoint. This report will attempt to explain the reaction of employers to the quality of the labor referral service provided by the Project from September 1966, through the first quarter of 1973.

While it is important to be able to predict and explain relocation success on the basis of the characteristics of relocation clients, other considerations are important. The characteristics of the cities or towns to which the client is relocated, the characteristics of the place where the individual works, and the employers' assessment of the quality of labor the individual provides all interact with the characteristics of the relocatee to determine his likelihood of relocation success. These three sets of factors form part of his environment, part of the external "stimuli" that impact upon the individual in his decision to remain on the job and in the area. The first of these three sets of factors is treated in another part of this report although brief synopses of the demand areas are presented at the beginning of this analysis. The last two sets are the focus of this analysis.

Because of data limitations, this analysis will be only suggestive of directions to pursue in the future. The sample utilized is small, yet comprises the employers of the majority of the relocatees hired during 1966-1973. Detailed characteristics of the places of work were not collected extensively because of the exploratory nature of the analysis. However, the analysis will show that any successful relocation program must maintain constant and productive liaison with present and potential employers and that employer involvement in subsidized worker relocation is contingent not only upon labor market conditions but also upon effective employer-program relocations.

Research Design

In order to facilitate the analysis of data, a small sample of employers was selected with the selection criterion being a minimum number of five relocatees hired during the 1966-1973 period. Of the more than 550 employers utilized during the period only seventy-three hired five or more relocatees. After the first wave of questionnaires was sent out in early May 1973 to Project field staff who were to administer them to the employers in the sample, it was found that due to either a small number of "big" employers or

an unsatisfactory questionnaire return rate from employers in a particular area, additional employers would have to be selected. Consequently, fifteen employers of three or four relocatees were added to the original sample list. The first wave of questionnaires produced forty-eight usable questionnaires, or 66 percent; the second wave resulted in six usable questionnaires, or 40 percent. The final sample constituted fifty-four employers, or 65 percent of the two waves of questionnaires. In spite of the less than satisfactory return rate, the fifty-four employers who provided usable information hired sixty percent of the 2,495 relocatees hired during the 1966-1973 period.

The questionnaire was constructed to obtain two kinds of information: (1) a few characteristics of the firms (products, size, ownership, recruiting activities, etc.), and (2) employers' assessments of the Project and the concept of subsidized relocation in terms of the characteristics of the relocatees as compared with employees hired through other sources of labor. Additional information about the firms would have required a more extensive questionnaire than was feasible at the time.

The information obtained from the questionnaires is placed in the context of selected characteristics of the areas in which the firms are located, characteristics of relocatees to those areas, and a performance measure of the relocatees to that area (their stay rate at two months after being hired). The employers' assessments of the Project are analyzed in terms of the characteristics of the firms of the employers, the objective quality of labor force relocated to that area, and the quality of the relocatee labor force as compared with that of other employees hired by the employers.

The statistical analysis will consist of chi-square tests of associations between variables. The major statistical tests will be conducted between the employers' assessments of the Project and other items in the questionnaire. Secondary tests will be conducted when warranted to interpret particular relationships.

Characteristics of Firms Surveyed

Because of operational and sampling restrictions the firms in Arkansas are lumped together in spite of the great diversity of the areas in which the Arkansas firms are located. One firm in Desoto County, Mississippi, is included with the Memphis firms because Desoto County is part of the Memphis SMSA. West Memphis, Arkansas firms are included with the other Arkansas employers even though they are within the Metropolitan Memphis area. All the Gulf Coast, Mississippi firms surveyed are in Jackson County. The Northeast Mississippi firms are in either Lee County or adjacent Prentiss County. The Jackson-Vicksburg firms are in contiguous Hinds, Rankin, and Warren Counties.

In Table 1 are presented selected characteristics of the firms surveyed. The diversity is obvious. Some of the outstanding profiles of the area firms

Table 1: Area of Firms and Selected Characteristics of Firms

Characteristic	Arkansas	Gulf Coast	NE Miss.	Jackson/ Vicksburg	Memphis	Total
Age of Firm	17	4	18	4	11	54
1-10 yrs.	6	1	8	1	3	19
11-20 yrs.	1	1	8	0	3	13
21-30 yrs.	4	0	2	2	2	10
30 + yrs.	6	2	0	1	3	12
No. of Employees	17	4	18	4	11	54
1- 99	6	2	3	0	5	16
100-499	7	0	10	2	1	20
500-999	1	1	4	0	4	10
999+	3	1	1	2	1	8
Recruiting Range	17	4	18	4	11	54
25 miles or less	6	1	0	0	3	10
26-50 miles	9	2	8	3	7	29
51-75 miles	1	0	7	1	0	9
75 + miles	1	1	3	0	1	6
Industrial Classification	17	4	18	4	11	54
Manufacturing	13	1	15	4	9	42
Durable Goods	9	1	9	3	7	29
Nondurable Goods	4	0	6	1	2	13
Nonmanufacturing	4	3	3	0	2	12
Metropolitan Location	17	4	18	4	11	54
Metropolitan	12	4	0	2	10	28
Nonmetropolitan	5	0	18	2	1	26
Firm Ownership	17	4	18	4	11	54
Local	9	3	5	1	6	24
Nonlocal	8	1	13	3	5	30
Relocatees Hired	17	4	18	4	11	54
1-10	14	1	9	2	6	32
11-20	1	0	5	0	3	9
20+	2	3	4	2	2	13

Table 1: Area of Firms and Selected Characteristics of Firms (Continued)

Characteristic	Arkansas	Gulf Coast	NE Miss.	Jackson/ Vicksburg	Memphis	Total
Length of Association w/Project	17	4	18	4	11	54
1-12 mos.	12	0	4	2	5	23
13-36 mos.	5	1	4	1	3	14
36 + mos.	0	3	10	1	3	17
Assessment of Project	17	4	18	4	11	54
Expand	2	3	16	1	1	23
Continue as is	7	1	2	1	8	19
Discontinue	8	0	0	2	2	12

included: (1) the relative youth of the Northeast Mississippi firms; (2) the wide recruiting range of the Northeast Mississippi firms; (3) the relatively narrow recruiting range of employers in metropolitan areas (other than Northeast Mississippi); (4) the intrusion of national corporations in local business activities through absentee-ownership (most pronounced among the Northeast Mississippi firms); (5) the heavy concentration of relocatees in manufacturing firms, especially in firms that manufacture durable goods; and (6) the high concentration of relocatees in small to medium-sized firms. The Northeast Mississippi firms had a longer average association with the Project; the Arkansas firms utilized the Project as a source of labor for the shortest average length of time. The highest degree of employer enthusiasm about the Project's activities was in the Northeast and Gulf Coast, Mississippi, areas with the least enthusiasm among the Arkansas employers.

Characteristics of the Relocatees to the Various Areas

Not only were the firms substantially different among themselves, but the relocatees showed considerable variability. Much of the variability in the characteristics of the relocatees is manifested when comparing the cohorts of relocatees to each of the five major demand areas. It is important to outline the objective quality of the relocatee labor force in each area in order to place in perspective the employers' evaluations of the relocatees and the Project. It is anticipated that employers which received the better relocatees, objectively speaking, would be more likely to favorably view the relocatees and the Project.

Research for a previous Project report[1] resulted in the selection of several relocatee characteristics that were useful in predicting their likelihoods of remaining in the demand area (70 percent of those remaining in the area remained on their relocation jobs). Some of those characteristics are included in Table 2: age, marital status, and education. Northeast Mississippi, which had the highest average stay rate, had relocatees who were older and more likely to be married than were the relocatees to the other areas. In addition, Northeast Mississippi along with Memphis had the most relocatees with the prior work experience. They were also the areas that received relocatees with the highest average length of unemployment prior to relocation; the length of unemployment for Arkansas relocatees is confounded by the high incidence of CEP trainees who counted most of their training weeks as weeks of unemployment. The Jackson area relocatees were better educated and less experienced in the labor force, primarily due to the high incidence of college graduates relocated to Jackson during the Summer of 1971.[2] There appear to have been some trade-offs in terms of compensating for characteristics that were related to staying in the area; e.g., shorter average distance relocated for low average education (Northeast Mississippi); higher

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[1] Relocating the Unemployed: Dimensions of Success, September 1973.

[2] However, the Jackson area employers surveyed for this report hired no relocatees with college degrees.

Table 2: Selected Characteristics of Relocatees to the Five Major Demand Areas: December 1968 - February 1973

Area	21 years & Over (%)	Males (%)	Married (%)	Exper. Labor Force (%)	Average Distance Relocated (miles)	Average Education (years)	Ave. Unempl. (weeks)	Total (N)	Two-Month Stayers (%)
Arkansas	53.4%	81.7%	26.6%	70.1%	103.98	10.43	22.66	301	48.8%
Gulf Coast Miss.	64.3%	98.5%	43.3%	76.2%	172.78	10.77	12.96	601	66.1%
Northeast Miss.	74.6%	90.2%	60.6%	78.5%	51.69	9.83	14.69	480	73.0%
Jackson/Vicksburg	59.2%	89.5%	34.0%	50.6%	88.36	12.17	13.54	162	67.4%
Memphis	74.4%	96.3%	52.2%	83.0%	71.95	9.83	14.73	383	67.4%
Total	66.8%	92.7%	46.0%	75.0%	105.32	10.41	15.30	1936	65.4%

average education for inexperience in labor force and age (Jackson area); and higher starting wages for age, marital status, distance moved, and average prior unemployment (Gulf Coast).

In summary, Northeast Mississippi got the relocatees most likely to remain in the area, the ones least likely to have to move far from their home towns, and the ones employers and Project field staff indicated that employers preferred to have (older, more mature, and more experienced in the labor force). As will be seen later, the Northeast Mississippi employers were the most enthusiastic about the Project and about the concept of worker relocation.

Characteristics of the Principal Demand Areas

Having described the firms and the relocatees, it is appropriate to briefly encapsule the nature of the areas themselves (Table 3). While there is a great deal of diversity in the areas, the demand areas are, on the average, places of better social and economic conditions and opportunities. When compared with the state averages, the demand areas are more urban, nonwhite, and stable in employment. The demand areas are comprised of people who are less poor, better educated, more likely to be employed in manufacturing, more likely to be employed year-round, and more likely to have growing yet stable populations. Employment opportunities are expanding more in the demand areas than in the states at large, fewer workers have to commute out of their county of residence to find work, and females have greater labor force participation rates in the demand areas than in the states at large. In summary, the demand areas objectively provide better opportunities for employment and economic advancement.

Analysis of Data

Ten percent of the firms who hired relocatees during 1966-1973 were analyzed for this report. Table 4 shows the breakdown by demand area of the number of firms in the sample and the approximate number of firms utilized in each area. The areas with the largest number of firms were Northeast Mississippi, Metropolitan Memphis, and Arkansas. Due to the sampling criteria, some areas were over-represented and others under-represented. However, most of the firms employed too few relocatees to be included in the sample, and areas where such firms predominated were undersampled and vice versa for areas with a large number of firms hiring five or more relocatees.

Table 5 shows a summary of employer satisfaction with or assessment of the Project by the location of the employer. Overall, seventy-eight percent of the employers said the Project should either expand or continue its present activities. As pointed out earlier, the Northeast Mississippi employers were much more satisfied with the Project than employers in other areas. The Arkansas employers were among the least satisfied. Some of this dissatisfaction could have been anticipated by examining the

Table 3: Selected Characteristics of the Principal Demand Areas*

Demand Areas	Area Characteristics**														
	% Urban	% Unemployed	% Families below Poverty Level	Population Change: 1960-1970	Employment Change: 1966-1971	% Commuters	% Nonwhite	% Employed in Manufacturing	% Employed 26 Weeks or Less	% High School Graduates	% Housing Lacking Plumbing	% Females in Labor Force	% Migrants of Population 5 Years or Older	Labor Mobility of Males 30-49 Years	% Craftsmen and Operatives Among Experienced, Unemployed Males
Little Rock, AR	85	3	14	18	20	13	21	18	16	58	5	45	19	13	53
Warren, AR	50	5	32	-9	17	16	39	25	23	32	29	35	10	13	55
Gulf Coast	78	4	15	27	30	17	17	25	19	55	6	36	28	17	46
N. E. Miss.	39	3	22	13	34	17	18	37	15	41	20	47	15	14	56
Jackson/Vicksburg	79	4	20	13	18	12	39	30	17	58	9	46	16	14	50
Memphis	94	5	16	15	20	11	37	20	18	50	4	44	15	15	46
Ark. (State)	50	6	23	7	13	12	19	26	23	40	18	37	18	14	52
Miss. (State)	44	5	29	2	18	14	37	26	20	41	24	39	15	14	49
Tenn. (State)	59	4	18	9	15	14	16	31	19	42	15	41	15	12	56

*Areas included the following counties: (1) Little Rock--Pulaski County; (2) Warren-Desha and Bradley Counties; (3) Gulf Coast-Jackson and Harrison Counties; (4) N. E. Mississippi--Lee and Prentiss Counties; (5) Jackson-Vicksburg--Warren and Hinds Counties; and (6) Memphis-Shelby County.

**Most data from the 1970 census. The changes in employment data are from the 1966 and 1971 County Business Patterns. The housing data are from the 1970 Census of Housing. The poverty and "employed 26 weeks or less" data are for 1969. Labor Mobility for males refers to those who were in and out employment in 1965 or 1970 i.e., changed employment status.

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Table 4: Location of Firms Surveyed

Area	Firms		
	Firms In This Survey	Total Firms In This Area	Percent Surveyed
Arkansas	17	119	14%
Gulf Coast Mississippi	4	89	4%
Northeast Mississippi	18	148	12%
Jackson-Vicksburg	4	49	8%
Metropolitan Memphis (TN and MS)	11	128	9%
Central Mississippi*	0	23	0%
Total**	54	556	10%

*Firms in this area were not interviewed because 22 of the 23 hired only one relocatee and the remaining firm hired only two.

**Does not include firms in South Mississippi (other than Gulf Coast), Southwest Mississippi, and Southwest and South Central Arkansas.

Table 5: Areas of Firms and their Assessments of the Project

Areas	Assessments			Total
	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	
Arkansas	2	7	8	17
Gulf Coast, Mississippi	3	1	0	4
Northeast Mississippi	16	2	0	18
Jackson-Vicksburg, MS	1	1	2	4
Northwest Mississippi and Memphis, TN	1	8	2	11
Total	23	19	12	54

characteristics of the relocatees to each area (Table 2). This examination is reserved for the section of interpretation of results. As a point of interest, the interviews with many Memphis employers indicated that labor recruitment in the Memphis area was difficult and generally unsatisfactory, the major reasons given being the rapid growth in demand for labor outstripping the starting wages being offered--high demand but reluctant supply.

In an effort to determine if some characteristics of the firms were related to relocatee success and subsequent employer satisfaction with the Project, some questions about the nature of the employing firms were included in the questionnaire. The employee turnover rates proved uninterpretable, but when asked to compare the relocatees with their other employees, those employers who indicated that relocatees left at a higher rate also indicated a relative dissatisfaction with the Project (Table 6). Similar results were obtained when looking at the absenteeism, motivation, and skill levels of the relocatees compared with other employees (Tables 7-9).

Table 6: Turnover of Relocatees versus other Employees and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Relocatee Turnover Rate	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Higher	4	7	11	22
Same	17	12	1	30
Lower	2	0	0	2
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 7: Absenteeism of Relocatees versus other Employees and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Relocatee Absenteeism	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Greater	4	7	8	19
Same	16	11	4	31
Less	2	1	0	3
Total	22	19	12	58

Table 8: Motivation of Relocatees versus other Employees and Assessment of the Project

	Assessment			
Relocatee Motivation	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Greater	3	0	0	3
Same	17	14	4	35
Less	3	5	8	16
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 9: Skill Levels of Relocatees versus Other Employees and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Relocatee Skill Levels	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Higher	0	0	0	0
Same	19	17	5	41
Lower	4	2	6	12
Total	23	19	11	53

It was considered possible that smaller firms with local ownership would provide more open, friendly, supportive relationships between the relocatees (and other employees) and supervisory personnel and consequently result in a higher likelihood of staying on the job. Since reliable job retention rates were not available for each firm, this problem had to be approached indirectly by examining firm characteristics and employers' assessment of the Project. It was assumed that employers' assessments flow at least partly from the satisfactory performance of the relocatees, one performance measure being staying on the job. In Table 10 the relationship between employer satisfaction with the Project and the size of the firm is somewhat curvilinear in that the very small and the very large firms demonstrated the least satisfaction while those in the middle were the most enthusiastic. Half of those middle-sized firms were in Northeast Mississippi where the majority of the firms were not locally owned. Firms that were locally owned were somewhat less enthusiastic about the Project's services than those that were not locally owned (Table 11). Part of the answer may

Table 10: Size of Firms and Assessment of the Project

	Assessment			
Number of Employees	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
1 - 99	6	5	5	16
100 - 499	10	7	3	20
500 - 999	5	4	1	10
1000 and over	2	3	3	8
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 11: Ownership of Firm and Assessment of the Project

	Assessment			
Locally Owned	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	9	10	4	23
No	14	9	8	31
Total	23	19	12	54

lie in the wage structure of these firms or may lie in other areas. It is possible that the wage structure was not very important because of the average starting wages for the relocatees as outlined in Table 2 where Northeast Mississippi, which had the lowest average starting wage for all relocatees, had the highest proportions of relocatee stayers and enthusiastic employers.

The younger firms, most of which were in Northeast Mississippi, were more enthusiastic about the Project than the older firms (Table 12). Perhaps this was due to savings on recruitment costs since recruitment is more costly in the formative years of a firm. The savings on recruitment was unrelated to firm age (Table 13), while savings on another employer expense, training, was more likely to occur for younger firms than for older firms (Table 14).

The extent to which the employers relied upon diversified sources of labor, the Labor Mobility Project included, appears related to employer satisfaction with the Project (Table 15). In general, the more sources

Table 12: Age of Firm and Assessment of the Project

	Assessment			
Years	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
1 - 10	9	4	6	19
11 - 20	8	5	0	13
21 - 30	3	3	4	10
31 or more	3	7	2	12
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 13: Age of Firm and Savings on Recruiting Costs

	Saved on Recruiting Costs		
Age of Firm	Yes	No	Total
1 - 10 yrs	10	9	19
11 - 20 yrs	10	4	14
21 - 30 yrs	5	5	10
31 yrs and over	6	5	11
Total	31	23	54

Table 14: Age of Firm and Savings on Training Costs

	Saved on Training Costs		
Age of Firm	Yes	No	Total
1 - 10 yrs	8	11	19
11 - 20 yrs	5	9	14
21 - 30 yrs	1	9	10
31 yrs and over	1	10	11
Total	15	39	54

Table 15: Number of Sources used for General Recruitment of Employees and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Number of Sources[1]	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Five	2	8	3	13
Four	9	5	2	16
Three	8	4	3	15
Two	3	1	2	6
One	1	1	2	4
Total	23	19	12	54

[1]Walk-ins, mass media, Employment Service, private employment agencies, and employee referrals

Table 16: Sources of General Recruitment of Employees and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Source	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Walk-ins	21	18	5	44
Mass Media	9	12	5	26
Employment Service	20	19	9	48
Private Employment Agencies	6	9	4	19
Employee Referrals	20	17	8	45
Total	76	75	31	182

routinely used for labor recruitment, the more likely the employers would be to be satisfied with the Project's labor referral system. It is possible that those who had to rely less upon a single or a few sources of qualified employees were either more tolerant or patient with the Project and its efforts, or they found the Project to be a constant source of qualified labor, or they needed labor from any source, regardless of qualifications. The types of labor referral services used by the firms were unrelated to employer satisfaction with the Project (Table 16).

The most commonly stated reasons for using the Project were that it could provide workers on relatively short notice and that the employers were willing to use any source of labor (Table 17). Recruitment was the major reason for using the Project. Only twenty-two percent of the responses indicated a concern for obtaining qualified, trained, or trainable workers. There were no significant relationships involving reasons for using the Project and assessment of the Project's services. However, it is worth noting that those employers who felt the Project should expand its activities expressed more reasons for availing themselves of the Project's services (an average of 1.70 responses per employer versus an average of 1.19 responses for the other two groups of employers). It appears that those employers with more reasons for recurring to the Project were less likely to be disappointed with the services (mainly labor referral) provided by the Project.

Table 17: Reasons for Using Project Services and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Reasons for Using Services	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Primarily Recruitment	21	12	8	41
Primarily Type of Worker	8	6	3	17
Others	10	4	4	18
Total Responses	39	22	15	76
Total Employers	23	19	12	54

Firms make intensive efforts to minimize recruiting costs and use the least expensive sources of labor (Table 16), but those which are growing and cannot readily get the labor they need locally usually expand their recruiting efforts beyond traditional sources. One of the employers in the survey uses mobile recruiters that cover a three-state area, visiting state employment service offices and manpower training schools to interview prospective workers. Firms whose demand for labor is strong but less urgent than that

of this employer must nevertheless attract workers from beyond the usual commuting distance from their location. The prime objective of the Project was to move workers who either could not find work locally or could not commute. Eighty-one percent of the firms recruited beyond a twenty-five mile radius of their location with twenty-eight percent recruiting beyond fifty miles (Table 18). Those who had a wider recruiting range would probably have more need for a labor referral service that could relocate workers. Table 18 shows that employers with wider recruiting ranges were much more likely to be satisfied with the Project.

Table 18: Recruiting Range of Firms and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Recruitment Range	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
0 - 25 miles	2	2	6	10
26 - 50 miles	10	14	5	29
50+ miles	11	3	1	15
Total	23	19	12	54

Most of the firms with wide recruiting ranges were not located near or in metropolitan areas where labor supply was more plentiful (Table 1), but rather were located in areas where economic growth was of recent origin and was outstripping the growth of labor supply (Northeast Mississippi and Gulf Coast Mississippi). There were, however, several nonmanufacturing firms that recruited statewide because of the traditional unavailability of local labor (hospitals and utility companies). In spite of the apparent need to recruit over a wider area, no relationship was found between the recruiting range and the usage of the Project's labor referral services as measured by the number of relocatees hired (Table 19). However, those with the wider recruiting ranges were more likely to have been saved some recruiting expenses (Table 20), and therein probably lies one of the major reasons for satisfaction with the Project's services.

In addition to aiding employers by expanding their range of labor supply, this and sixty other relocation projects also have served as sources of employees with work-related training through linkages with manpower training programs. Tables 21 and 22 show that employer satisfaction with the Project was positively related to the likelihood of saving recruiting and training costs with savings on recruitment costs being the more important of the two. Table 23 summarizes the combinations of costs savings and assessment of the Project. It is worthy of note that only one employer was saved training costs but not recruitment costs, and that

Table 19: Recruiting Range of Firms and Number of Relocatees Hired

	Relocatees Hired			
Recruitment Range	1 - 10	11 - 20	20+	Total
0 - 25	8	0	2	10
26 - 50	17	5	7	29
50+	7	4	4	15
Total	32	9	13	54

Table 20: Recruiting Range and Savings on Recruitment Costs

Recruiting Range	Saved Recruitment Costs		Total
	Yes	No	
0 - 25 miles	2	8	10
26 - 50 miles	16	13	29
51+ miles	13	2	15
Total	31	23	54

Table 21: Savings on Recruitment Costs and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Saved Recruitment Costs	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	22	8	1	31
No	1	11	11	23
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 22: Savings on Training Costs and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Saved Training Costs	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	13	2	0	15
No	10	17	12	39
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 23: Savings on Recruitment and Training Costs and Assessment of Project

Savings on		Assessment			
Recruitment	Training	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	No	12	2	0	14
Yes	No	10	6	1	17
No	Yes	1	0	0	1
No	No	0	11	11	22
Total		23	19	12	54

savings on recruitment were more likely to occur than savings on training. Another factor of note is that eleven of the fifteen employers that indicated savings on training costs due to hiring relocatees were located in the Northeast Mississippi area, an area that received very few relocatees with prior work training (Table 24). On the other hand, only one Arkansas employer indicated savings on training costs---all the Arkansas relocatees had CEP training. Perhaps the employers were thinking about savings due to hiring "trainable" rather than "trained" relocatees.

In view of the facts that the Project was a government-funded program and that many of the employers received relocatees trained in government programs, it would be useful to determine if employers' prior experience with government programs may have affected their attitudes (assessments) toward the Project. Table 25 shows that the vast majority of the employers with no prior experience with trainees from government programs were located in the Arkansas and Memphis areas, areas in which employer dissatisfaction with the Project was the highest (Table 5). Table 26 shows the relationship between prior government training program experience and employers' assessments of the Project. The relationship, while not a dramatic one, is nevertheless a statistically significant one. Prior experience with employees who had government training program backgrounds is positively related to a positive evaluation of the Project.

Although a minority of the employers indicated a savings on training costs by hiring relocated workers through the Project (Table 22), it is conceivable that their responses were partially due to their overall views of the usefulness and/or quality of government-subsidized training. Tables 27 and 28 summarize the employers' assessments of government training (among employers with prior experience with employees with government-subsidized training). Savings on training costs were due somewhat to (1) views about the usefulness of government-subsidized training, and (2) the extent to which institutional training was seen as superior to on-the-job training. As a footnote to this discussion of employers' views regarding the effectiveness and quality of government training, it should be noted that virtually all of the employers with past experience with government training programs did not consider OJT training programs to be superior to institutional training. This finding is contrary to that of a previous survey of thirty Project employers conducted by the University of Texas Center for Economic Development during the Fall of 1972.[2] It is not suggested that these data serve as a basis for recommending relocating more trained workers, but rather that some knowledge of employers' views regarding government training programs would be useful in determining or predicting savings on training costs by sending them relocated workers with prior government training. Also, relocating workers for jobs linked with

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[2]Center for Economic Development, Employer Assessment of Assisted Mobility: A Study of the STAR Project, Austin: University of Texas, January, 1973, pp. 66-67. The present study encompassed all but one of those included in the Texas study in addition to twenty-five other employers.

Table 24: Savings on Recruitment and Training, Area of Firm, and Assessment of Project

	Saved On		Assessment			
Areas	Recruitment	Training	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Arkansas	Yes	Yes	1			1
	Yes	No	1	3	1	5
	No	Yes				0
	No	No		4	7	11
Subtotal	111	111	2	7	8	17
Gulf Coast Mississippi	Yes	Yes	1			1
	Yes	No	2			2
	No	Yes				0
	No	No		1		1
Subtotal	111	111	3	1	0	4
Jackson-Vicksburg	Yes	Yes				0
	Yes	No		1		1
	No	Yes	1			1
	No	No			2	2
Subtotal	111	111	1	1	2	4
Northeast Mississippi	Yes	Yes	10	1		11
	Yes	No	6	1		7
	No	Yes				0
	No	No				0
Subtotal	111	111	16	2	0	18
Metropolitan Memphis	Yes	Yes		1		1
	Yes	No	1	1		2
	No	Yes				0
	No	No		6	2	8
Subtotal			1	8	2	11
TOTAL	111	111	23	19	12	54

Table 25: Location of Firm and Prior Experience with Employees with Government-Subsidized Training

	Prior Experience		
Area	Yes	No	Total
Arkansas	7	10	17
Gulf Coast	2	2	4
Northeast Mississippi	18	0	18
Jackson-Vicksburg	4	0	4
Metropolitan Memphis	4	7	11
Total	35	19	54

Table 26: Prior Experience with Government Trained Employees and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Prior Experience	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	19	11	5	35
No	4	8	7	19
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 27: Savings on Training Costs and Usefulness of Government Training for Present Job

	Usefulness of Government Training			
Savings on Training Costs	Very Useful	Somewhat Useful	Not Useful	Total
Yes	6	8	0	14
No	4	15	2	21
Total	10	23	2	35

Table 28: Savings on Training Costs and Comparison of Government Institutional Job Training and On-the-Job Training (OJT)

	Institutional vs. On-the-Job Training			
Savings on Training	Institutional Better Trained	Institutional and OJT About Equal	OJT is Better	Total
Yes	9	5	0	14
No	4	16	1	21
Total	13	21	1	35

OJT should not necessarily have high priority if the views of the employers were used as a guide or reference point. However, given the relatively lower costs of OJT and the majority view of the employers that OJT was at least comparable with institutional training, relocations linked with OJT would probably result in a better benefit/cost ratio than relocations linked with institutional training programs.

It is now appropriate to turn to the relationship between length of association with the Project (time from first relocatee hired to that of last relocatee hired) and employer assessment of the Project. Table 29 shows that a slight majority of the employers surveyed had utilized the Project's services for one year or less, the range being from one to seventy-seven months. Those who used the Project as a labor source over a longer period of time were more likely to favorably view the Project. The anomaly in Table 29 is those seven employers who, although with the Project for over three years, were less than enthusiastic about the Project: three of those seven employers were in the Memphis area, one of the two areas where employer satisfaction with the Project was the lowest. It is evident that, from a mobility project-employer liasion perspective, the quality of the first batch of relocatees hired by a given employer could be significant in continued recourse to the project for future recruitment. The Northeast Mississippi employers had the longest average association with the Project, while the Arkansas employers had the shortest average association (Table 30).[3] The average length of the association of the Mississippi Gulf Coast employers with the Project is overstated by the sample of those employers: almost all of the Gulf Coast employers hired from one to three relocatees during a twelve-month period.

Given that the length of association with the Project is reflected in positive evaluations of the Project, it would be worthwhile to determine why the employers continued with the Project as long as they did; in other words, what was the payoff for them apart from being able to tap an additional source of labor? Table 31 shows that those who stayed with the Project longer were more likely to save on both recruiting and training costs even though recruitment was the primary reason for using the Project's labor referral service (Table 17). Savings on training costs became an additional, perhaps unanticipated payoff. Where savings were primarily on recruitment costs, the length of association was intermediate, while savings on neither item were related to short associations with the Project.

Positive evaluations of the Project were associated with the likelihood of getting the type of workers requested. Although most of the employers indicated recruitment of labor as their primary reason for their association with the Project, many of them did specify certain types of workers or types of persons which they would like to receive.

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[3]Relocations in Arkansas began in October, 1969---three years after Mississippi relocations were initiated.

Table 29: Length of Association with the Project and Assessment of the Project

	Assessment			
Months with Project	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
1 - 12 months	5	10	8	23
13 - 36 months	8	4	2	14
37 months or more	10	5	2	17
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 30: Association with Project and Area of Firms

	Association (Months)			
Area	1-12	13-36	36+	Total
Arkansas	12	5	0	17
Gulf Coast	0	1	3	4
Northeast Mississippi	4	4	10	18
Jackson-Vicksburg	2	1	1	4
Metropolitan Memphis	5	3	3	11
Total	23	14	17	54

Table 31: Length of Association with Project and Savings on Recruitment and Training Costs

Saved On		Association			
Recruitment	Training	1-12	13-36	36+	Total
Yes	Yes	3	3	8	14
Yes	No	7	5	5	17
No	Yes	1	0	0	1
No	No	12	6	4	22
Total		23	14	17	54

These specifications were usually entered on the job order forms routinely processed by the central office. The employers were asked in the survey if, in general, they received the kinds of workers they requested or expected to get from the Project: two-thirds of them responded to the affirmative (Table 32). The eighteen employers who said they did not get the kinds of workers they requested were spread out over the Project area and expressed no common complaints about the type of workers they received; their association with the Project ranged from one to seventy-seven months with the average association being 19.1 months.[4] Table 33 shows a slight positive relationship between length of association with the Project and likelihood of receiving the kinds of workers requested. In view of the tight labor supply conditions in the demand areas, it is not too surprising that employers would continue with a given source of labor even though they sometimes did not receive the kinds of labor requested. Finally, the employers that were most likely to have been associated longer with the Project were in the Northeast Mississippi area, the area where employer evaluation of the Project was most positive; the employers with the shortest association with the Project were in Arkansas, the area with the lowest evaluation of the Project.

One of the primary, if not the most important, payoffs of participation in subsidized relocation is obtaining a stable relocatee work force. As already shown, employer satisfaction with the Project was highest in areas with the highest relocatee stay rate. Although the stay rates are more precise indicators of remaining in the demand area rather than of remaining on the new job, the majority of those who remained in the area remained on the job. During the operation of the Project seventy percent of the relocatees remained in the demand areas at least two months after being hired.

Employers' Views of Why Relocatees Left Their Jobs

The employers were asked what they thought were the major reasons why relocatees left their new jobs. Table 34 shows the distribution of the employers' responses to that question. An original list of seven factors (possible reasons) was provided with space for additional factors to be inserted by the employer(s). The reasons were to be ranked from the most predominant or important one to the least predominant or important one. Table 34 indicates that those items provided were fairly accurate in that over half of the employers ranked most of them. The factor that drew the most response and highest ranking from the employers was lack of motivation to work. The factor that elicited the least response and lowest ranking was the wages paid by the employer. The rankings did not significantly vary according to employer assessment of the Project (Table 35).

It is not surprising that employers would assume a lack of motivation if a relocatee left his employ. Only one employer suggested that relocatees

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[4]The average length of association of the other 34 employers was 29.0 months.

Table 32: Receiving Workers Requested and Assessment of Project

	Assessment			
Workers Requested	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	17	15	2	34
No	6	3	9	18
Total	23	18	11	52

Table 33: Months with the Project and Received Workers Requested

	Received Workers Requested		
Months With Project	Yes	No	Total
1-12	12	8	20
13-36	7	4	11
37 or More	15	6	21
Total	34	18	52

Table 34: Employers' Views Regarding the Major Reasons Why Relocatees Leave Their Jobs

Reasons For Leaving	Number Ranking	Total Employers	% Ranking
Extended Home Visits	31	54	57.4%
Poor Job Preparation	29	54	53.7%
Inadequate Transportation	34	54	63.0%
Lack of Adequate Housing	23	54	42.6%
Inability to Adapt to New Community	32	54	59.3%
Not Motivated to Work	45	54	83.3%
Wages Paid by Employer	19	54	35.2%

Table 35: Ranking of Reasons for Leaving the Relocation Job by Assessment Of Project

	Assessment			
Reasons for Leaving	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Extended Home Visits	6	5	6	6
Poor Job Preparation	2.5	4	4.5	4
Inadequate Transportation	5	1.5	2	2
Inadequate Housing	4	6	4.5	5
Inability to Adapt to New Community	2.5	3	3	3
Not Motivated to Work	1	1.5	1	1
Wages Paid by Company	7	7	7	7
Total Employers	23	19	12	54

might have left to find another job. Other Project data show that about sixty percent of those who leave the demand area find work within six months after returning home. Furthermore, about rinety percent of those who leave their new jobs but stay in the demand area find other employment in the area within six months after leaving the relocation job. The employer consensus that the relocatees were not motivated to work appears unrealistic.

The employers did indicate some degree of knowledge about adjustment problems faced by the relocatees, most of whom came from rural areas or small towns and from families with low incomes. They suggested that the relocatee-leavers had problems with job preparation, transportation to and from work, and finding adequate housing near the place of work. In addition, they suggested that relocatee-leavers were not able to adjust to new surroundings.

The employers did not see their starting wage scales as being a factor contributing to the leave rate of the relocatees. In Table 36 it is readily apparent that the employers were not paying attractive starting wages. Over half of the relocatees started at less than $2.01 per hour. If the relocatees to the Mississippi Gulf Coast are omitted, almost three-quarters (74 percent) of the relocatees began their new jobs at less than $2.01 per hour. In essence, most of the jobs paid at or near the legal minimum wage---not much to keep a new employee loyal to the company and not significantly different from the prerelocation wages of many of the relocatees. The demand areas had higher costs of living than the supply areas, yet the relocatees were hired into wage levels relatively imcompatible with the differentials in the cost of living.

Through an oversight in questionnaire construction, the relationship between the type of business or industry in which the relocatees worked and their job stability could not be explored. None of the fifty-four employers offered this as a possible reason for relocatee turnover. Table 37 illustrates the distribution of the occupations or jobs into which the relocatees were placed during December 1968 through February 1973. The majority of the relocatees were placed in jobs that traditionally experience the highest degree of employment uncertainty. In fact, correlations between the stay rates and the incidence of craftsmen and operatives among the experienced unemployed labor force in the various demand areas were negative. If relocatees are placed in jobs that are highly represented among the experienced unemployed, it should not be too surprising that those relocatees might leave their jobs either through resignations or layoffs. The stay rates by occupational classification in Table 38 are not much different from what would be expected based upon the general stability of employment in those occupations. Due to the general employment conditions of the semi-skilled and unskilled labor force, lack of motivation to work does not appear to be a fair statement of why relocatees (or employees in general) leave their jobs.

Table 36: Hourly Starting Wages for Relocatees to the Five Major Areas during December 1968-February 1973

	Starting Wages				
Area	$1.60-$2.00 per hour	$2.01-$2.50 per hour	$2.50+ per hour	Total	% Less than $2.01 per hour
Arkansas	234	55	19	308	76.0
Gulf Coast Mississippi	34	51	470	555	6.1
Northeast Mississippi	348	63	44	455	76.5
Jackson-Vicksburg	77	51	45	173	44.5
Metropolitan Memphis	364	39	34	437	83.3
Total	1057	259	612	1928	54.8

Table 37: Occupational Classification of Relocatees during December 1968 - February 1973

Category	N	%
Professional, Technical, and Managerial	90	4.6
Clerical and Sales	76	3.9
Service	62	3.2
Farming, Fisheries, and Forestry	7	0.4
Processing Trades	230	11.9
Machine Trades	193	10.0
Benchwork Trades	253	13.1
Structural Work	768	39.7
Miscellaneous	255	13.2
Total	1934	100.0

Table 38: Stay Rates (Six Months or More) for Occupational Classifications of Relocatees (Job in Demand Area): January 1970-February 1973 *

Category	Stayers	Leavers	Total	% Stayers
Professional, Technical, and Managerial	87	7	94	92.6%
Clerical and Sales	46	21	67	68.6%
Service	25	25	50	50.0%
Farming, Fishery, and Forestry	5	0	5	100.0%
Processing	62	102	164	37.8%
Machine Trades	70	57	127	55.1%
Benchwork	58	46	104	55.7%
Structural Work	218	277	495	44.0%
Miscellaneous	57	110	167	34.1%
Not Classifiable	0	48	48	0.0%
Total	628	693	1321	47.5%

*Six-month data not available for DOT classifications prior to January 1970.

Employers' Recommendations Regarding the Worker Relocation

Having dealt with the employers' evaluations of the Project's activities, it is appropriate to consider their recommendations regarding (1) modifications in the present Project and (2) the implementation of worker relocation on a nationwide basis. Tables 39 and 40 show that the majority of the employers would recommend the Project to other employers and that worker relocation should be implemented on a nationwide basis although the first recommendation is less decisive than the second.

Those who thought the Project should be discontinued were emphatic that other employers should not avail themselves of the Project's services and that worker relocation in general was not a good idea. Those who thought the Project should expand its operations were equally emphatic that other employers should use the Project and that relocation should go nationwide. The "continue" employers were somewhat conditional in their recommendation to other employers but almost as positive as the "expand" employers in their recommendation regarding a nationwide relocation operation.

In spite of their general enthusiasm about the Project and worker relocation, virtually all the employers offered some suggestions about how relocation operations could be improved (Table 41). Indeed, the groups of employers most satisfied with the Project's services offered the most suggestions, while the least satisfied employers were the least helpful in offering suggestions for improving relocation services. Among the last group of employers, one-half of their suggestions were related to getting relocatees with better work habits (motivation to work, less absenteeism and tardiness, etc.); their suggestions constituted slightly over one-fifth of the suggestions tallied in Table 41. Apparently, most of them were not able to see beyond the relatively disappointing experiences they had had with the relocatees they hired. Considering their degree of disenchantment, their suggestions, had they been more numerous, should have proven instructive. Two of those twelve employers offered no comments at all. In general this group of employers would not recommend the Project to other employers, would not like to see relocation done on a broader basis, and would not offer constructive criticism of the Project.

Work Habits

The majority of the employers, regardless of their assessment of the Project, were in agreement that assistance prior to relocation was necessary. The recommended assistance would be in the form of developing good work habits such as punctuality, respect for supervisory authority, ability to work harmoniously with co-workers, regular attendance at the place of work, abstinence from alcohol on the job or prior to coming to work, motivation to work (perhaps the prime concern of the employers), ability to accept responsibility while on the job, and willingness to work a full shift each day. Much of these work habits can be taught prior to relocation or the

Table 39: Assessment of the Project and Recommendations that Other Employers Use Project Services

Recommendation	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	21	8	0	29
Depends	1	11	5	17
No	1	0	7	8
Total	23	19	12	54

Table 40: Assessment of the Project and Recommendations that Worker Relocation be Implemented on a Nationwide Basis

Recommendation	Expand	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Yes	22	12	2	36
Depends	0	0	2	2
No	1	4	7	12
Total	23	16	11	50

Table 41: General Categories of Suggestions from Employers Regarding Modifications in the Project and/or in Worker Relocation

Category	Frequency of Response	% of Employers
Prior Work Experience	19	35.2%
Job Training Prior to Relocation		
Work-related skills	21	38.9%
Work habits and orientation world-of-work	37	68.5%
Mature Relocatees (Older, Married, w/Families)	8	14.8%
Better Educated Relocatees	8	14.8%
More Supportive Services in New Area (day care, transportation, etc.--other than counseling)	13	24.1%
Assistance with Housing	5	9.2%
More Followup Contacts and Counseling of Relocatees (both on and off new job; contact with employers to check on performance on the job)	6	11.1%
Closer Employer Liaison (general, routine contact; explain objectives of relocation; etc.)	2	3.7%
Relocation Linked with On-the-Job Training (OJT)	5	9.2%
New Community Orientation	5	9.2%
Larger Project staff	4	7.4%
Expansion of Recruiting Area and More Flexibility (universality) of Eligibility Criteria	11	20.4%
New Job Orientation (by Project and/or employer)	4	7.4%
Better Match of Relocatees Abilities and Job Requirements	2	3.7%
Other (more money, physical and mental examinations, cutting off further financial aid from government, relocatee contracts, etc.)	19	35.2%
Total Employers	51	94.4%

relocatee already possesses them but needs the opportunity to manifest them. Some manpower programs already profess to provide such training in the form of orientation and assessment classes prior to job placement. Much of the lack of good work habits comes from low quality labor force experience, experience with too few jobs or too little time on each job. Employers seem to have two alternatives when it comes to hiring this type of relocatee: (1) use the prerelocation interview to weed out those who do not have acceptable work habits, or (2) have patience with the new employee and provide some on-the-job training that would develop acceptable work habits. Employers who do not have access to an experienced, qualified labor pool upon which to draw must relax their recruitment standards and take the risks that such relaxation implies. Mobility projects such as this one have focused primarily upon the unemployed, many of whom have no prior work experience and often are not very educated; in a word, many mobility clients are disadvantaged socially, culturally ,and economically. If the project staff carefully explain the nature and objectives of worker relocation to the client and the employer, then the employer must conduct his own "screening process".

Prior Work Training

A recommendation related to the first one is that relocatees lacking in job skills be given work-related training prior to relocation; this type of training would provide skills apart from good work habits. The employers who mentioned work-related training as an improvement in relocation services preferred that the training be conducted prior to relocation in order to save training costs once the relocatee is hired. One employer said that the relocatees trained on the job were ultimately "pirated away" by other employers in the same area. Five employers indicated they preferred on-the-job training to institutional job training prior to relocation because they felt that through OJT they could assure themselves of the quality of the skills the new employee developed. During the history of the Project about one-half of the relocatees had received some type of work-related training prior to relocation, either through Department of Labor manpower training programs, public school vocational technical classes, or in business or military schools. The majority of the manpower trainees relocated by this project have been relatively young, single, and inexperienced in the labor force---three characteristics associated with a high likelihood of not remaining very long in the demand area after relocation.

While the employers emphasize the importance of prior work experience or work-related training, the Project survey of relocatees moved during 1970-71 indicated that about one-third of those with prior work-related training were hired for jobs in which they could not use that training. Those who were able to use their prior training were more likely to stay on the new job.

Prior Work Experience

The third major area of concern of the employers surveyed was that too few of the relocatees had prior work experience or that the work experience was not immediately transferrable to the work requirements of the new job. Again, in view of the target population of this project and others in the past, it is not possible to relocate only clients with prior work experience. A substantial portion of the unemployed population in this country is found among the young, inexperienced segment of the labor force. In the South many of the unemployed have been displaced by technological and economic changes in the agricultural sector of the economy, resulting in having skills or work experience that is not immediately transferrable to the industrial workplace. As in the case of recruiting employees with unacceptable work habits, part of the burden rests with the employer to hire only those with the amount or kind of prior work experience required for the job in question. Given that, at least at present, the supply of labor exceeds the demand for labor in the areas where recruitment for relocation occurs, mobility project staff cannot hope to match work experience and skills with prospective employer requirements in all instances. The unemployed without the requisite background are more in need of job development assistance by mobility staff and more employer flexibility than is necessary for those with the requisite background. An increase in on-the-job training contracts linked with relocation might serve as a partial solution to inadequate work histories.

Worker Maturity and Education

A number of employers recommended that more mature and better educated relocatees be made available. Their recommendation was based on the premise that families with educational levels sufficiently high enough to be trained fairly quickly on the job would be less likely to move so soon after relocation, that they would more quickly become eligible for pay raises, and that their productivity would be satisfactory soon after beginning to work. The data confirm the employers' premise to the extent that older, better educated relocatees with families are more likely to remain in the area and on the new job than those who are young, less educated, and without families to support. Relocatees with families cost the most to relocate, and if they decided to move again, they would have to pay their own costs. Part of the post-relocation stability of this group of relocatees may be due to the economic hardships of financially unassisted moves in addition to a general dislike for "pulling up stakes". Getting married, unemployed persons to relocate has not been easy; most of the relocatees have been single without dependents, the kinds of employees the employers appear not to want.

Transportation

Another area of employer concern is of an ecological, logistical nature. They suggested that relocatees be given more assistance with

getting to and from work. The assistance might be in the form of car pools of relocatees, getting public transportation lines extended so that they pass close to the place of work, providing loans for cars, and finding housing within a reasonable walking distance of the place of work. Only about one-half of those relocated by the Project had their own means of transportation for getting to and from work. Some areas were more likely to have relocatees with cars than others: three-quarters of the Northeast Mississippi relocatees had cars, while the incidence of car ownership among relocatees to all the other areas averaged slightly over forty percent. Two surveys of relocatees showed that those who had their own means of transportation were more likely to stay on the new job than those who had to depend on others for getting to and from work. Locating housing close to the places of work when the relocatees do not have cars or when public transportation lines do not run close to the plants is a difficult task, especially since plants are increasingly being located in relatively unaccessible places (in industrial parks and in the suburbs or out in the country). These are places where low-rent housing is unavailable or very unlikely to be built.

Prerelocation Counseling

Both the employers and the Project field staff agreed that more intensive prerelocation counseling is needed to help relocatees avoid some of the "cultural shock" involved in moving from small, rural areas into large, urban areas and from primarily agricultural work settings. Several employers suggested that this be done by the employers themselves, but others implied that the mobility staff should take on the responsibility. Perhaps the "orientation" could be divided: the mobility staff orient the relocatee with detailed information about the community, including an "on-site" visit to the community after the interview with the prospective employer during which time the employers provide as much information as possible about the job and the work place; after the relocatee arrives on the new job, the employers again provide orientation in the place of work.

Follow-up Counseling

The relocatees who remain in the new area to receive their relocation assistance monies have regular contact with field staff to the extent that the assistance checks are personally delivered on a regular basis until the monies have been paid in total. Sometimes the checks are delivered at the place of work. Some of the employers felt that more contact with the relocatee at the place of work was needed, and that the employer be consulted during the "on-site" visit by the staff person. Staff-relocatee encounters in the new area need to consist of more than delivery of assistance checks. The employers suggested that more indepth counseling of relocatees is needed; one employer recommended that a professional social worker be available to the relocatees on-the-job. Family counseling was also recommended. Of special importance was that of moving the family and particularly the spouse as soon as possible.

Miscellaneous Recommendations

Other employer recommendations ranged from requiring physical and mental competence examinations prior to being hired to more relocation assistance monies to requiring the relocatees to sign some sort of contract that would require good work performance. A suggestion from only one employer that merits attention is that of setting up day care facilities at the place of work with the employer and the employee sharing the costs of the service. This would be of significant value in rural areas where relocatees have transportation problems and for relocatees who have children but no spouse (WIN participants, for example).

The employers in the Northeast Mississippi area were almost unanimous in recommending that the geographic scope of relocatee recruitment be expanded and that the criteria for relocation eligibility be made more flexible or eliminated altogether. These employers were the most enthusiastic about the Project, had the widest average recruiting range, and hired relocatees with the highest average stay rate. It was not possible to precisely determine the reasons for this expansionist orientation; however, it can be pointed out that this area is one of the fastest growing areas in the three-state area, perhaps reaching a point of labor shortage. Many of the employers in the area recruit heavily in nearby Northwest Alabama. By expanding the eligibility criteria, the employers may have been saying indirectly that they felt they could get better qualified labor than had been routinely available through the Project, or that the eligibility criteria simply did not encompass enough potential workers to meet their recruitment needs.

APPENDIX D

Annotated List of Major Project Reports

1. 1967 Annual Report (for work period June 26, 1966 - June 25, 1967).

   This report covered project development for a partial state operation. Presented were very limited answers to its initial objectives. This year of work expended very limited funds, was severely restricted by the initial contract statement of work, and mainly served to uncover those beginning "lessons learned" related to Project's need for development.

2. 1968 Annual Report (for work period June 26, 1967 - November 30, 1968).

   This report covered translation of lessons learned during the first year of work into the development of a statewide research project. It more clearly defined key work elements of recruitment, job development, concepts for field staff deployments, handling of relocatee financial assistance, need for supply area and demand area counseling, and recommended solutions to relocatee problems.

3. 1970 Annual Report (for work period December 1, 1968 - February 28, 1970).

   This report, while very extensive, did not provide sufficiently detailed answers as desired by the Department of Labor. Included were key discussions related to the operation of a relocation program such as operational organization, required staff, how it should operate, organizational principles, and operational costs analysis. Indepth data were presented on the need for relocation as a supportive new manpower service and its impact on the needs of the unemployed, disadvantaged poor.

4. Draft Worker Relocation Handbook, June, 1970.

   The data included were a translation of those answers developed by the Project related to the operation of a relocation effort by a private contractor.

5. Revised draft of Worker Relocation Handbook, June, 1971.

   The basis for this handbook was those operational features developed by the Project and presented in the 1970 draft. Also, its format was changed as desired by the Department of Labor. A summary of its contents are not included herein since its important features were included in report number 9 listed below.

6. Identification of Potential Areas of Worker Relocation Service Demand and Supply, June, 1971.

   This was the refinement of an inhouse study conducted by the Project for its development and expansion. Presented were the rationale, definitions of terms, interpretative reasoning, and those data

pertinent to areas and points of unemployed worker supply and those areas and points of demand for labor. Key discussions from this study were included in report number 9 listed below.

7. Linkage of Relocation Services with Opportunities for Families Program, October, 1971.

   This report portrayed the use of relocation services as were included in Section 2114, Title XXI "Opportunities for Families Program and Family Assistance Plan" of the proposed HR-1 bill of 1971. Subsequent deletions to this proposed bill encompassed those parts which contained relocation services. All relevant data presented in this report are included in report number 9 listed below.

8. Relocating the Unemployed: Dimensions of Success (Final Report) September, 1973.

   This report is in response to those objectives related to the "whys" for relocatee success or failure with particular emphasis on those who were six-month relocatee "stayers". This report is based on 869 relocatees and 375 nonrelocatees supported by a random sample collection of indepth data on 326 relocatee stayers and leavers and 75 nonrelocatees.

9. Relocation Assistance Delivery Techniques (Final Report) December, 1973.

   This report is in response to all those objectives related to the "operational development" of a worker relocation program regardless of its size and scope. Particular emphasis is given to those operational "elements" and "services" which are required for the relocation of the unemployed disadvantaged poor.

10. Relocating the Unemployed: Evaluation and Policy Implications for a National Program (Final Report) December, 1973.

    This report is in response to the need for an extension or replication of those objectives in Final Report #1 above with the addition of developing a predictor model for successful relocatees and a costs/benefits analysis of relocation. The impact of relocation on the relocatees is more thoroughly analyzed through before-after-relocation data. An historical summary of the Project's operation from 1966 to 1973 is included to provide the organizational and environmental contexts which constrained the relocation of the unemployed poor and which may have affected the quality of services offered by the Project and consequently the success of those relocated.